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ABSTRACT

This publication examines the process of networking, which is defined here as a framework to provide technical support between and among professionals. The process of networking is explored over a 7-year period as it served directors of the Midwest Teacher Corps, one of 12 networks established on a geographical basis by the Teacher Corps Program, a national effort begun in 1965 to address the educational needs of low income students. In seven chapters, each by a different author, the process of networking is evaluated and subjected to a number of critical assessments. Following a preface and introduction, the chapters are: (1) "Developing an Understanding of Professional Networks" (Jacqueline Lougheed); (2) "Midwest Teacher Corps Network: Insiders' Views" (William Patton); (3) "Organizational Structure" (Richard Hammes); (4) "Developmental Network Model" (Evelyn B. Freeman); (5) "Practical Concerns Related to Networking" (Leo W. Anglin and Dale L. Cook); (6) "Implementation and Maintenance of Networks" (John M. Kean and Carol J. Kean); and (7) "Summary and Conclusions" (Evelyn B. Freeman). Practical concerns related to networking are discussed and suggestions for the implementation and maintenance of networks are offered. (Author/THC)

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NETWORKING

A Case Study and Developmental Model

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NETWORKING:
A Case Study and Developmental Model

Edited by
Evelyn B. Freeman, Ohio Wesleyan University
Lee T. Peterson, Youngstown State University

Dedicated

to

The Board of Directors
Midwest Teacher Corps Network

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PREFACE

NETWORKS: NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Teacher Corps began in the mid 60's with a narrow focus upon the preparation of teacher interns who could eventually enter the classrooms of the nation as teachers. By the 1970's the Teacher Corps program had become far more complex as it sought and achieved a role at the cutting edge of change. Its agenda for change included not only the role of colleges of education in preparing teachers but that of the schools in which those teachers were employed. New legislation authorized program support for inservice as well as preservice activities. Members of the community, in whose schools Teacher Corps Projects functioned, were assured a role in the governance of those projects.

This complexity created new problems for even the most experienced directors. In turn this created a need for a platform upon which common problems could be addressed. The Washington office recognized that attendance at regional and national meetings of Teacher Corps and professional organizations simply would not satisfy that demand. Problems were arising in the projects of substantive—as opposed to "contractual"—nature. Project leadership, which we then limited in our vocabulary to Deans and Directors, needed the opportunity to carry on a dialogue regarding the many priorities being set for them by Washington.

Initially, projects turned to each other in an informal but persistent way. Five New York City projects, only a subway token apart, first came to my attention in mid 1971. It was apparent that their ad hoc meetings were binding them together into a cohesive unit of projects within New York City. In addition, they had established a modest vehicle to examine large issues facing teacher education in New York City and indeed, in the nation.

In 1972 Bank Street College of New York City agreed to serve as the host institution to pilot, for Teachers Corps Washington, a more formal way in which projects could meet, address common concerns on a collegial basis, and in a sense, serve as a three-way communication channel among each other and Washington.

This pilot effort, funded at a modest level, proved to be an exciting, challenging success. The remaining five projects in New York State were soon involved and the first State network was off and running. With considerable but unjustified hesitancy on my part, we supported a request from the New England projects to form a network, built upon an existing regional development authority which had an education component. (My hesitation addressed our inadequate conceptualiza-

tion of networking at that time and the problems which a multi-state effort might therefore yield).

Within a year, every project in the nation was a member of one of twelve networks established on a geographical basis. One project in each network was designated by Washington to serve as the recipient of network operational funds. These networks continued to function until the summer of 1980; then the absence of sufficient funds made it impossible for the networks to be supported by the Washington office and they formally expired.

In 1980, the National Teacher Corps was funding 132 projects located in each of the 50 states. Together, they constituted a single program. It was important to the success of that program that every project identify itself with the national effort prescribed in the authorizing legislation. It was felt that this identity could best be attained through a common view on schooling. This view identified a deep national interest to be served through an equality of educational opportunity for all Americans and that the discovery and use of more effective methods of teaching was extremely important to that search.

Teacher Corps relied upon the production of vast amounts of literature and numerous regional and national conferences to solidify and integrate this view. It was the networks, however, that provided the most coherent and orderly system for its realization. Networks not only provided access to other Teacher Corps staffs across the nation, but also to a much, much larger world. Networks served at least three purposes. First, they provided projects with a platform for discussing and resolving common problems related to national priorities. Second, through network activities, projects were able to carry on dialogues with that vast education community outside of Teacher Corps. Third, the professional contributions of project leadership became visible and subject to peer review by that education community.

Teacher Corps, as a federal program for teacher education, is dead. The problems that Teacher Corps tried to address, however, will not die. There remains the need to improve the quality of education and the need to improve staff development and teacher education practices as a means to that end. If the reform of teacher education is to continue—or begin (?)—much can be gained by reviewing the experiences of programs such as Teacher Corps. More can be gained through recognition of the talents which thousands of individuals gained as members of university, school, and state agencies. These individuals remain a vast resource for the future.

The human resources which have emerged and become visible as a result of the networks may well be Teacher Corps' most important legacy. They remain in positions in schools and universities, all searching for ways in which school improvement can take place. As an organized cadre of leaders, trainers, and staff developers with a national identity, they are bringing to a close that chapter of their lives called Teacher Corps. However, as individuals, they possess an enormous amount of experience and training related to the improvement of schools in low income areas in this nation.

The concept of "networking" as developed by Teachers Corps is nicely illustrated in this publication. The writers not only cover the theoretical and organizational issues of networks as delivery systems but look at the day-by-day practices as well. As I could well have anticipated, they raise serious questions about what each other is doing.

This publication gives me additional confidence that the great legacy of Teacher Corps—talented organizers, developers, and trainers—will continue to talk and listen to each other. This is a rather simple statement of the network mission. The projects in the Midwest Network are continuing that mission. I am pleased that they asked me to participate in this endeavor.

James P. Steffenson
Associate Director
Teacher Corps

INTRODUCTION

This publication examines a process called networking. Although a more detailed description of networking will follow in the body of this monograph, we can oversimplify a definition by identifying networks as a framework designed to provide technical support between and among professionals. Although the participants described in this publication are all educators, their fields of expertise are diversified. Although the process appears to be somewhat rigid, it is in fact quite flexible. And, although the subject is education, it really doesn't matter. What does matter is the professional growth that can be attained by participating in the activities of the network.

Over the next seven chapters, networking as a process will be evaluated and subjected to a number of "critical eyes". We have examined the process of networking as it served the Midwest Teacher Corps directors for seven years. We have exposed the products that strengthened the process. And, we have debated the characteristics necessary to maintain a successful network among professionals.

The networking process is by no means a new concept. Networking has been going on since man first learned to communicate. What makes this publication unique is that several persons who have "lived" the process, have now taken time to reflect on its impact. Although this publication has been written by a few, it actually represents the long-term efforts of sixteen dedicated professionals who gave of themselves to insure that others could duplicate their successful accomplishments.

Networking becomes a successful practice only when the participants are open, free of spirit, and constantly seeking ways to improve the process. We would hope that persons reading this publication, and seeking ways of strengthening the common bondage between and among professionals, would adopt the process by modifying the procedure and implementing the intent. Approximately 200 Teacher Corps training/retraining programs have benefited from this networking process. It has given many professional participants that added emphasis to provide programs of excellence back home.

As will be discussed in the body of this monograph, networking must be flexible enough to provide valuable information to the newest member while sustaining and providing support for the veteran. This is the value of people supporting people; this is networking.

Lee T. Peterson
Chairman of the Board
Midwest Teacher Corps Network

CHAPTER 1

DEVELOPING AN UNDERSTANDING OF PROFESSIONAL NETWORKS

Jacqueline Lougheed
Oakland University

This chapter has two primary purposes. The first is to present a rationale for the study of networks and the second is to provide important historical and background information for this particular study. This study will deal with professional networks in general and more specifically, with the Midwest Regional Teacher Corps Network, 1974-1980.

Rationale

Professionals are involved in a variety of networks, and the experiences one gains from these networks vary greatly. Some variations are due to the nature of networks: their life span, initiators, and purposes they seek to serve. Some networks are formal in nature, while others are informal. Some last for long periods of time, while others last only until a need is met or a problem resolved. Some are initiated by organizations or agencies, while others are initiated by a single individual or group of individuals. Some focus on a very specific need, while others seek to serve a wide variety of needs. Regardless of their nature, life span, initiators, or focus, networks play an important and integral part in the life of a professional. The problem is, however, that all too often professionals fail to understand or utilize networks and networking experiences to their fullest. There are several reasons for this problem and these reasons seem to fall into several broad categories. One is the lack of a comprehensive, conceptual framework for viewing this type of organization. Another is a lack of participant perceptual data on network experiences. Still another is a lack of implementation and maintenance strategies to help those initiating and striving to maintain networks. Primary among these, however, is the need for a framework to provide a perspective for understanding networks and networking experiences. Utilizing organizational and social systems theories and models, the writers of this study have developed and will propose a Developmental Network Model. This Model views networking from a two dimensional perspective of organizational and personal characteristics. Using a hypothetical-deductive approach to the Model, networks can be described and therefore, better understood as a function of both domains. It is the transaction among and between these two domains which sets and defines behavior and determines the overall parameters for the productivity and effectiveness of any particular social system. Using the Model, the writers found that certain generalizations or typologies

of networks could be extrapolated. The writers further hypothesize that these typologies fall along a continuum from closed to open, from bureaucratic to adaptive. In addition, they propose that the more open and adaptive the network becomes the more productive and personally satisfying are the networking experiences. A complete description of the Model, its theory base and the various types of networks, will be described in detail in ensuing chapters.

For the purpose of this study, networks are defined as an interconnected or interrelated group of individuals or institutional representatives formed to encourage communication among individuals who generally have no other way to communicate directly, and to provide services that individual institutions cannot sustain on their own.

Participant perceptual data was obtained from Teacher Corps Directors on the Midwest Teacher Corps Network Board of Directors. Surveys and interviews were used to obtain their perceptions. Viewing the Network as an unique culture, enthographic like approaches were used in the surveys to obtain descriptions of the essence of life within the culture. From a domain analysis of these data, structural questions were developed for the follow-up interviews. Suffice to say at this point, the participants in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network viewed their networking experiences as productive and successful. When asked to give overall ratings to 1) the networking experience itself, 2) individual professional gains, 3) personal gains through networking, and 4) network impact on local projects, the ratings in all four areas were extremely high. Overall, networking experiences were rated extremely high. Professional gains were rated slightly higher than personal gains and project impact was slightly lower than both personal and professional gains. These variations in perceptions, however, were small and not significant. From the participants' point of view, networking was a meaningful growth experience. It is the intent of this study to record these perceptions and to hypothesize and generalize on the reasons for success in this and other networking experiences. The Developmental Network Model is designed to not only assist in the analysis of these experiences but to assist others in the design, implementation and participation of networking.

Historical and Background Information

The information presented here has been organized into three categories: Teacher Corps; Teacher Corps Networks; and organization of the study.

Teacher Corps

In 1965 Congress passed legislation for the creation of a national effort to impact American education, thus, creating Teacher Corps. Teacher Corps was conceived as a counterpart to Peace Corps and Vista and was specifically mandated to address the educational needs of low income students. The legislation proposed a new model of teacher education by stipulating a two year experience-based practicum in schools. This practicum experience, four times longer than that

required by most teacher education institutions, provided the core for the training model. Theory and knowledge-base components were directly related to classroom experiences of the teacher-interns. The interns were a nationally screened, locally selected group of young men and women dedicated to making a difference in the schools. It was required that applicants should have baccalaureate degrees in fields other than education. Experienced teachers were released to serve as supervisors and coordinators of the interns, thus providing one of the early attempts at differentiated staffing for teachers. The model also called for a concentration of efforts in a few schools. It was anticipated that this concentration of effort would increase the probability for change. Community involvement and community-based components were to be important features of this model. Universities participating in Teacher Corps programs were carefully selected on the basis of their willingness and anticipated potential to change current practices in teacher education. In 1974, because of the changing needs for new teachers, the legislation was updated and rewritten. In the new legislation the number of interns was significantly decreased and inservice training for teachers in the schools was significantly increased.

Teacher Corps was authorized under Title V of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (P.L. 93-380 amended 1974, 1976). As stated in the legislation, the purpose of the Corps was . . .

> to strengthen the educational opportunities available to children in schools having concentrations of low-income families and to encourage colleges and universities to broaden their programs of teacher preparation and encourage institutions of higher education and local educational agencies to improve programs of training and retraining for teachers and teacher aides by:
>
> (1) Attracting and training qualified teachers who will be made available to local educational agencies for teaching in such areas;
>
> (2) Attracting and training inexperienced teacher-interns who will be made available for teaching and inservice training;
>
> (3) Attracting volunteers to serve as part-time tutors or full-time instructional assistants in programs carried out by local educational agencies and institutions of higher education serving such areas;
>
> (4) Attracting and training educational personnel to provide relevant remedial, basic, and secondary educational training, including literacy and communication skills for juvenile delinquents, youth offenders, and adult criminal offenders;
>
> (5) Supporting demonstration projects for retraining experienced teachers and teacher aides serving in local educational agencies. (Title V, Part B., Subpart 1)

In 1978 updated Teacher Corps rules and regulations published in the Federal Register specified the following four outcomes for projects:

(1) Improved school climate which fosters the learning of children from low-income families;

(2) Improved educational personnel development systems for persons who serve or who are preparing to serve in schools for children of low-income families;

(3) The continuation of educational improvement (including products, processes and practices) made as a result of the project, after Federal funding ends;

(4) The adoption and adaptation of those educational improvements by other educational agencies and institutions.

The rules and regulations also included the following key program requirements: education that is multicultural; diagnostic/prescriptive teaching; integrated presevice and inservice training designs; and community-based education. It was mandated that projects would have: an elected Community Council; a Policy Board representing key decision makers from participating institutions and the Community Council Chairperson; and a collaborative mode of operations involving the associated institutions, community,and other vested interest groups. Another significant change in the 1978 rules and regulations increased the life span of the projects from two to five years. Approximately eighty projects were funded in 1978 and an additional fifty in 1979. All of these projects were designed to demonstrate, disseminate, and institutionalize more effective and responsive educational programs. This represented a major long-term effort to impact American education.

Teacher Corps Networks

As Teacher Corps projects responded to the federal legislation in light of local needs, it became increasingly apparent that there was a need to facilitate sharing and communication across projects. In addition, local project demonstration efforts became more comprehensive in scope. Materials, models, teaching techniques, and intervention strategies were being developed and implemented; yet Teacher Corps lacked a retrieval-dissemination system. It was both this growing complexity and comprehensiveness of project response, as well as project needs for assistance and collaboration with other projects on program development, that spurred five Teacher Corps projects in the City of New York to organize into the first formal network in 1972. The primary focus of this network was to assist the individual projects in the development of competency-based teacher education programs. This initial experiment proved to be so beneficial that the original five projects were soon joined by all Teacher Corps programs in the State of New York. This network served as a prototype for others and by early 1974, Texas and California had formed similar state-wide networks.

This early development of networks not only marked the beginning of the formal organization of networks in Teacher Corps, but also set the precedent that individual networks would determine by mutual agreement their own focus in networking. As state-wide networks were becoming operational, efforts were under way to spread networks nationwide to include all projects. To a great extent, this became a reality by 1974.

Teacher Corps Projects were organized into regional networks. The Midwest Teacher Corps Network was part of the first expansion of networks. These networks eventually became twelve in number and included California, Far West, Mid-Atlantic, Mid-South, Midwest, New England, New York, Plains (MINK), Rocky Mountain, Southeast, Southwest (LOAN), and Texas. In addition, three special foci or thematic networks were formed. The Research Adaptation Cluster was formed to help projects with a strong research adaptation focus. The Youth Advocacy Loop consisted of projects focusing on the special needs of delinquent and predelinquent youth. And, the Southern Consortium was organized to assist predominantly minority teacher education institutions in the South. With the development of the thematic clusters, projects could be members of more than one network. Membership in thematic clusters did not preclude membership in the regional networks and vice versa.

In 1974, the Midwest Teacher Corps Network consisted of eight projects from Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. The number of projects and states in each network varied over the years. At the time of this study, there were fourteen projects in the Midwest Network, most from the original network states, with the exception of Indiana. Indiana was reassigned to another network in 1978 in an effort to equalize the number of projects in any one network. Illinois joined the network in 1976, but was also reassigned in 1978. Project membership within networks varied, but an effort was made to keep the membership to a maximum of fifteen. Projects in the Midwest Network provided a rich array of program design and special focus, including Native American, Youth Advocacy, Research Adaptation, migrant and special community-based emphasis. Site locations included urban, suburban and rural. Over the years there was a mix of old and new programs, with some projects continuing in the Network over its life span. This continuity added a certain level of stability to the Network.

All Teacher Corps networks were formed for the following reasons:

1. To allow local Teacher Corps projects in a region to share solutions to problems in the management and development of training programs for teachers of children from disadvantaged backgrounds;

2. To allow local Teacher Corps projects in a region to determine what training will most readily facilitate the identification of problems and the sharing of solutions and resources; and

3. To provide training opportunities for project personnel, on a network-wide basis, establishing communication between personnel scattered among the different projects in a region. (Goddu, 1978 p. 2)

Directors of local projects were assigned to networks in their region and together they formed the board of directors. The board was responsible for planning, implementing, and evaluating the activities of the network. Each board elected a chairperson and selected a full-time Executive Secretary. The Executive Secretary, assisted usually by a staff of two, carried out the responsibility for facilitating, supporting, arranging, and organizing the activities proposed by the board. In addition, the Executive Secretaries facilitated sharing across networks as well as with the Washington Teacher Corps Coordinator of Networks. Washington Program Specialists were assigned to a regional network in which the majority of their projects resided. Both the Network Coordinator and the Program Specialists provided important coordination, facilitation and resource allocation services to the networks.

Forming informal and more specifically formal professional networks did not originate with the formation of these networks. Seeking support and information sharing links is a way of professional life. Having others as sounding boards and reality checks supplies both a balance as well as stimulus important in any creative effort. Sharing ideas and resources with others also tends to expand the success potential, as well as increasing one's sphere of influence. This support base, among other things, helped many new project directors shape their project's world in a more manageable or at least more understandable fashion. In many cases it provided that added support to encourage directors to take risks they might otherwise not have attempted. Before formal networks began, many informal links were formed around common interests or similarities in program design. Some of these informal groupings remained intact over the years. However, many felt that the larger formal networks supported with separate federal monies were the greater force in enhancing project resources and effectiveness.

Each regional or thematic network was governed by a board of directors consisting of all directors of projects assigned to that participating network. Participation by directors was mandatory. Areas of need were identified by the board and, in most cases, committees or task forces of directors were responsible for planning the the activities. Most networks had written procedures and by-laws, and developed a pattern of consensus decision-making with planned activities to encourage trust and team building. Each network was expected to carry out a number of meaningful activities each year. Conferences and site visits were planned and technical assistance and consultants were obtained. Materials were shared and projects cooperated in the validation and utilization of materials. Additional materials were developed, papers and monographs were published and disseminated throughout Teacher Corps and to the profession-at-large. The conferences, visits, technical assistance, and material validation

and development provided through the network centered on all four federally mandated program outcomes of improved school climate, improved educational professional development programs, and strategies for institutionalization and educational improvements. The network also provided technical assistance to projects in the development of key program requirements, including education that is multicultural, diagnostic/prescriptive teaching, integrated pre-and inservice teacher education programs, community-based education, and the election of the community council. The only overriding restraint placed on networks in planning activities was that activities planned had to meet the needs of at least two projects. In addition, project directors were given special assistance in the acquisition of the many skills required to be effective in that position.

The role of a Teacher Corps Project Director was perhaps one of the more difficult and demanding of administrative positions. This was true for several reasons. The role was a composite of several different and equally demanding roles. Besides the more obvious roles of administrator and manager, facilitator and coordinator of the efforts of others, and budgets, a Teacher Corps Director had to be skillful in forming collaborative working arrangements with an extensive array of audiences at the local, state, and national levels. These audiences included universities, public schools, community groups, parents, and professional organizations. With Youth Advocacy projects, corrections, youth-serving agencies, law enforcement, and the judicial were added to those with whom collaboration had to be established. Collaboration in governance, program design, implementation and evaluation was extremely difficult to achieve. This is always true when multiple institutions and interest groups are involved, for each tends to map its domain carefully and guard all prerogatives jealously. Establishing and maintaining collaboration takes highly sophisticated orchestration. Another difficult role the director had to play was that of developing and maintaining the project, a temporary system, dependent on several permanent systems. Even though this dependence existed, the temporary system had to develop its own identity and purpose while at the same time helping each participating institution feel collective ownership in the project. Finally, Teacher Corps projects were change oriented by nature and this placed the project, and more specifically, the director, under a great deal of pressure and stress. It was during the stressful periods, as well as in the general administration of the project that networks supplied invaluable support and assistance.

The value of sharing and collaborating across projects has not only strengthened local project efforts, but through the process of identifying, implementing, and evaluating practices, products, and procedures, national priorities have been influenced, changed, and in some cases more clearly defined through the efforts in the field. A couple of prime examples of this influence are Collaborative Decision-Making and Education that is Multicultural. Networking in Teacher Corps has had a profound impact on local efforts, the realization of national goals, and in shaping the profession-as-a-whole.

Organization of the Study

The experiences of the members of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network were both unique and rewarding. It is the purpose of this study to capture some of this uniqueness as seen through the eyes of the primary participants, the members of the Board of Directors. They shared their perceptions about networking as well as the achievements and the level of success of this particular network. Chapter 2 contains these perceptions and reactions. Chapter 3 focuses on networks as organizations. It describes general organizational typologies and analyzes networks in terms of leadership, communication, decision-making and the role of the individual network member. In Chapter 4 the Developmental Network Model is set forth and explicated. Chapter 5 discusses four categories of generic concerns related to networking. Chapter 6 describes characteristics of networks which those organizing networks should consider. Chapter 7 presents a summary and final conclusions.

REFERENCES

Authorizing legislation for Teachers Corps is found in the Congressional Record under Title V-A of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (Pub. L. 89-329) as amended by Pub. L. 90-35, Pub. L. 90-575, Pub. L. 91-230, Pub. L. 90-575, Pub. L. 91-230,Pub. L. 92-318, Pub. L. 93-380, and Pub. L. 94-482. (20 U.S.C. 1101 et. seq.)

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CHAPTER 2

MIDWEST TEACHER CORPS NETWORK: INSIDERS' VIEWS

William Patton
Kent State University

There is a body of literature which addresses many dimensions of networks and the networking concept. Rarely, however, has a network been described as a culture. When viewed from an anthropological perspective, a network can be described as patterns of behavior for a particular group of people. In this instance the group of people consisted of local project directors in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network. The interactions of the directors in the network resulted in experiences which became the basis for a wide range of meaningful behaviors. This chapter examines the meaning dimensions of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network as viewed by the directors.

What distinctive features of the directors' lives within the network gave it a unique character or behavior pattern? A time-tested method was employed to answer this basic question, i.e., ethnography. More specifically, the ethnographic method was used to identify the meaning of events, behaviors, and outcomes from the directors' perspectives in the naturalistic setting of the network. The essential character of the method has been summarized by Spradley (1979). "Instead of collecting 'data' about people, the ethnographer seeks to learn from people, to be taught by them. . . . Discovering the *insider's* view is a different species of knowledge from one that rests primarily on the outsider's view" (p. 4). The responsibility of this writer, therefore, focused on learning meanings from the directors and communicating the system of meanings that was the network as a culture.

Method

The Midwest Teacher Corps Network was one of twelve networks funded by the Teacher Corps Program in Washington, D.C. It consisted of fourteen projects or 10.6 percent of the funded Teacher Corps projects in the United States. The states represented in the network were Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin. The member projects included a cross section of emphases in Teacher Corps with Native American, Youth Advocacy, urban, and rural sites.

All fourteen project directors participated as key informants in one of more phases of the interview process. The interviews, however, were only one phase of the method employed in this study. Spradley (1979) provided the methodological framework for all phases of the study.

Three aspects of Spradley's research technique will be described briefly: (a) asking descriptive questions; (b) making a domain analysis; and, (c) asking structural questions.

Descriptive questions. This type of questioning is the foundation for ethnographic interviews and allows the interviewer to begin identifying patterns of meaning in the cultural setting. For example, many directors stated that the Midwest Teacher Corps Network provided a "support system." This response came from a general inquiry regarding the director's sense of the network's purpose. When a more specific question was used to understand the interviewee's meaning of the term, the following description of support system was provided. "By a support system, I mean an organization of which directors who are involved in similar kinds of activities can seek assistance and help and get ideas and critiques of ideas." Two different levels of descriptive questions were reflected in this example. The first was quite broad seeking general descriptions of culturally relevant information and serving to identify the language of the informant. With the second, the native language of the interviewee was used to provide specific descriptions of meaning in the cultural setting.

Domain analysis. Once information had been gathered from fourteen key informants (directors), the interviewer who had been analyzing the information while gathering it, began to identify relationships between different concepts and definitions. The systematic process of structuring these relationships is called domain analysis. Because the interviews and subsequent follow ups were the only sources of information regarding the Midwest Teacher Corps Network as a culture, the interviewer relied on semantic relationships. Initially, a single relationship was selected from the information. It has already been noted that one characteristic of the network was decribed as a support system. What terms or expressions were used to characterize the network as a support system? Sharing, share strategy, share successes, share ideas, and sharing process were examples from five different directors. The information produced a relationship between the characteristics and what Spradley called the cover term, or, in this instance, support system. Figure 1 displays the result of the domain analysis.

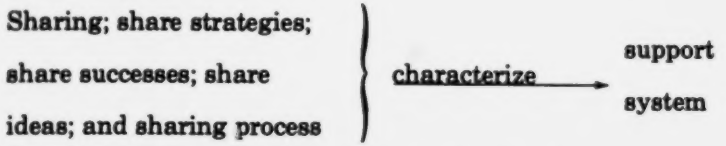

Figure 1 Domain Analysis—Sharing

This analysis was based on a preliminary hypothesis that emerged from one response during an interview: *The network provides an organization for directors to get ideas.* Domain analysis was carried out from clues for preliminary hypotheses based on interviews which allow information items to be grouped based on a tentative relationship.

Structural questions. Many different analyses were conducted by the interviewer. Each analysis, however, produced one or more additional questions. These structural questions were used to (a) establish boundaries for the different domains and (b) test preliminary hypotheses. Are there other aspects from the informant's perspective that would add depth to understanding the domain? Does the preliminary hypothesis hold when placed in question form with the directors? A sample structural question from the domain analysis in Figure 1 might be worded in the following way: Are there different kinds of sharing that take place in the network? Can you identify some of the different kinds of sharing that take place in the network? The first question tests the hypothesis while the second adds further information and facilitates the setting of domain boundaries.

The three phases of the method employed in this study were based on a much more detailed description provided in chapters four through seven in Spradley's book, *The Ethnographic Interview*. One dimension of using the method described above is its cyclical nature. The three phases are not discrete in time; rather, they interact and reoccur in the process of employing the overall technique.

The rationale for employing the ethnographic method was clearly articulated by Glaser and Strauss (1967).

> In contrasting grounded theory with logico-deductive theory and discussing and assessing their relative merits in ability to fit and work (predict, explain, and be relevant), we have taken the position that the adequacy of a theory for sociology today cannot be divorced from the process by which it is generated. Thus one canon for judging the usefulness of a theory is how it was generated—and we suggest that it is likely to be a better theory to the degree that it has been inductively developed from social research. (p. 5)

The theory that emerged from this study was "grounded" in that the hypotheses emerged from the culture itself and were validated by the key informants in the culture. Guba (1978) has provided additional support for this method by describing the naturalistic investigator as one who "is concerned with description and understanding. . . immersing himself in the investigation with as open a mind as possible, and permitting impressions to emerge" (p. 13).

Analysis

In the preceding paragraphs, the cyclical nature of the three-stage process of gathering and analyzing culturally relevant information from local Teacher Corps project directors in the Midwest Network was described. This section of the chapter will detail the outcomes of the domain analysis. The purpose is to delineate the specifics of the network which will provide the reader insights into the lives of local project directors in the culture.

Support system. An analysis of one dimension of the network as a support system has been used to illustrate the ethnographic technique employed in this study. Specifically, project directors described the

sharing aspects of the support system. Two additional relationships were depicted from the interview. The first relationship concerned the mutual assistance available to directors from the network.

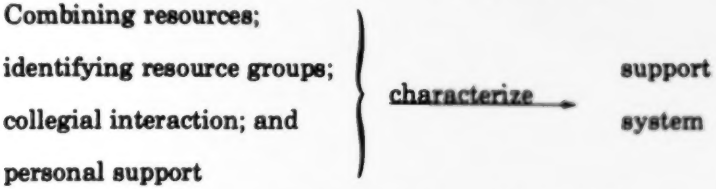

Figure 2 Domain Analysis—Mutual Assistance

*The network provides a structure for directors to assist each other in meeting project and personal needs.**

The second relationship within the broad area of support system involved the coordination of activities made possible by the network culture. Sharing and mutual assistance were native terms described by directors in general terms. The third aspect of support system, however, was delineated much more specifically. Identifiable events and artifacts were mentioned by directors.

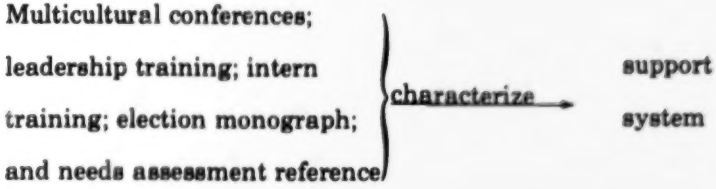

Figure 3 Domain Analysis—Coordination of Activities

The network was the catalyst for Teacher Corps personnel to join together for training, dissemination, and development activities.

Communication system. Inherent in each of the hypotheses dealing with the network as a support system is the pattern of communication that made the network a forum. Directors joined together as colleagues to share ideas, to assist each other in a number of professional and personal ways, and to generate programs. The communication described by directors included information sharing, dissemination, critiquing ideas, and problem solving. All cultures have a system of communication. This universal statement, when applied to the Midwest Teacher Corps Network, reflects the horizontal nature of the communication. Colleagues, peers, facilitating, and cross fertilization were some of the native terms used by directors.

**The preliminary or generated hypotheses that emerged from the interviews and domain analysis will be highlighted in italics.*

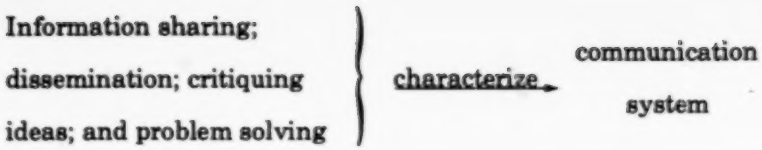

Figure 4 Domain Analysis—Communication System

The network fostered a two-way communication system which allowed the open sending and receiving of messages between peers.

Professional growth. In addition to many of the process elements which characterize the network from the directors' perspectives, specific outcomes of the network culture were identified. One director talked about "growth in skill areas." At one level, the directors and other Teacher Corps role groups participated in activities as part of the communication system. The exchange of ideas was important. An additional strength of the network, however, was the actual "strides" made by individuals because of the involvement. With needs emerging from the projects themselves, professional growth opportunities were planned and implemented. The result according to a number of directors was perceived change in behavior. The native terms in the domain analysis focused on different aspects of the change.

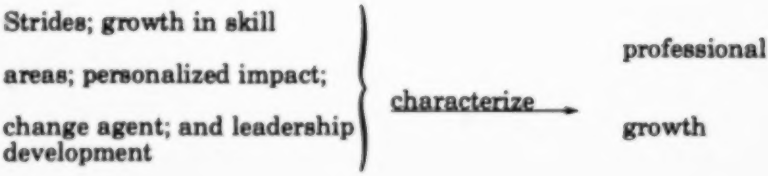

Figure 5 Domain Analysis—Professional Growth

The network created opportunities through formal and informal activities for professional growth among directors and other Teacher Corps role groups.

Linkage system. The Midwest Teacher Corps Network existed in the midst of a larger culture. That is, the network was part of the National Teacher Corps Program. Local directors, therefore, talked about the "link" provided between local projects and other organizations. The role of the network as a vertical (local to national) and horizontal (local to local) linking organization was viewed as a temporary system by the directors. Although viewed as a temporary system, this perception was not a description of either weakness or ineffectiveness; rather, it was viewed as "valuable" and "supportive."

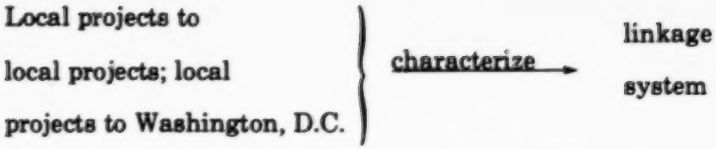

Figure 6 Domain Analysis—Linkage System

The network was a temporary system that provided links between local projects and collectively with Washington, D.C.

Governance. The final area of analysis that will be examined as a result of the semantic relationships that emerged from the meanings shared by project directors concerns the governance of the network. Directors claimed ownership of the network's governance. Terms such as "own" and "ownership" were used. In determining the more specialized meaning of these terms, they were tied to the decision-making process in the network. Concepts from administrative and decision theory such as "consensus," "Theory Y," "collaboration," and "parity" were spoken by all but a few directors. The larger relationship of meanings between support system, communication system, and linkage system became obvious in the directors' words related to governance of the network. It was people-oriented with equals sharing together and growing together. These cultural traits carried over into the governance and decision-making processes.

Figure 7 Domain Analysis—Governance

The network employed a decision-making process that shared responsibility and developed ownership.

Conclusion

The process of gathering information from the directors of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network has made it possible to describe its culture from the insiders' views. The focus has been on description rather than explanation. The nature of this description is best seen in the meaning that comes from information provided by the directors. The unique character of the network might have been lost had a preconceived theoretical frame been used to interpret the results of the interviews.

The ethnographic interview method employed in this study has produced a dynamic verbal picture of the network. Its unique character has illustrated the living culture in which local Teacher Corps project directors interacted. Goals were accomplished; programs were planned and implemented to accomplish the goals. Decisions were made

through collaborative efforts. Major structural elements in the network were identified. Equally important, however, is the relationship between elements. These relationships identify the character of the culture and highlight the dynamics of its purposes and interactions.

The separate domain analyses summarize individual meaning systems from the directors' perspectives. Each was expressed in the language of the directors and structured its meaning in the context of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network. Formal aspects of the Network that emerged from the individual domain analyses would include professional growth and linkage system. These characteristics might be found in any of the Teacher Corps networks throughout the United States. The more informal aspects of the Network would include support system, communication, and governance. These three elements may or may not be present in the culture of other networks. The freedom to share successes and failures required unique relationships among peers which many of the directors mentioned in their response to questions. The descriptions provided by directors of the relationships between elements of the Network make up its culture.

From all of the information provided by the directors and subsequent analysis and structuring of the information, it has been possible to suggest a paradigm of some aspects of the network. Facts have been identified from directors. The meaning of these facts has been confirmed. Relationships and the structures that result from the relationships have been clarified. Finally, a tentative paradigm which brings the facts, meanings, relationships, and structures together has been developed. This paradigm is in the form of a mapping definition.

The network as a culture was a *support system* characterized by
1) sharing
2) mutual assistance
3) coordination of activities

which resulted in the *communication* of
1) successes
2) failures
3) ideas

and the *professional growth* of
1) directors
2) other project personnel
3) interns
4) community members;

these aspects of the network were made possible because of the temporary *linkage system* between
1) local projects
2) local projects and Washington, D.C.

and its *governance* by
1) consensus
2) Theory Y
3) collaboration
4) parity.

Figure 8 Mapping Definition of the Network as a Culture

The validity of this paradigm for the Midwest Teacher Corps Network can be tested against the information generated from the local project directors. It is their meaning system—their culture. Each element is integrated in the culture to form a unique pattern.

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CHAPTER

3

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND THE INDIVIDUAL IN THE ORGANIZATION

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This chapter will focus on networks as organizations. Initially, networks will be reviewed in terms of general organizational typologies followed by an analysis of networks in terms of structure, emphasizing leadership, communication and decision-making. The individual functioning within the system will then be discussed. Finally, systems theory will be applied to the organization and the individual behavior within the organization.

Networks as Organizations

Typologies of Organizations

Organizations can be categorized in a variety of ways. Variables utilized to identify organizations by categories include social role, specific beneficial audience, and client/organizational selectivity. Organizational structure to some extent is dependent on how one typologically identifies an organization.

Social Role.

Katz and Kahn (1966) have attempted to describe organizations in terms of the role played in the greater society. While the categories are broad, and produce some overlap, they are helpful as an aid in understanding organizations, and may give insight into network structure. Typologies identified by Katz and Kahn are as follows:

1. Productive organizations. These organizations are basically economic, profit-producing organizations. They provide an output useful to society, usually tangible, but may be service-output as well. These organizations in a sense are the life-blood of, and typify, the American capitalistic free-enterprise system. Because output and profit are twin essentials of this type of organization, they tend to be bureaucratic, with 'clean' lines of authority and specific role descriptions. In addition, they are highly biased to the needs of the organization over the needs of the individuals in the organization.

2. Managerial organizations. According to Katz and Kahn, these organizations are politically-oriented, therefore the social role is to control and coordinate resources. Thus, they do not in a strict sense produce a product; they are a means to an end, rather than an end in themselves. These organizations are typified by the myriad of public agencies: local, state, and federal, which are responsible for facilitat-

ing, coordinating, and controlling resources in an attempt to more equitably distribute output produced by productive organizations. Because there is no real output which may serve as a measure of effectiveness, organizationally and individually, the organizational structure tends to be bureaucratic, with well-defined lines of authority and role responsibilities. A real problem with these organizations is the potential for eventual confusion of ends and means, i.e., the organization which is itself supposed to facilitate and help becomes more important than the organizations or individuals it is created to assist.

3. Maintenance organizations. These organizations are created to facilitate the socialization of people, to teach them societal norms and values. These organizations are important components of society in order to perpetuate itself, to provide continuity and stability to a given societal way of life. The educational system, schools, typify this category. Generally, these organizations attempt to structure themselves according to a bureaucratic model, with clear lines of authority, well-defined role responsibilities, and organizational orientation; but find difficulty in such structure due to the specialized and professional nature of the 'workers' in the organization.

4. Adaptive organizations. These organizations are created to generate and define knowledge, to develop and test theories, and to help other organizations apply theory and knowledge according to their needs. Institutions of higher education, research and development centers, and private 'think tanks' typify this category. Organizational structures tend to minimize bureaucratic characteristics in favor of collegiality, a kind of 'shared' responsibility.

Cui Bono (Who Benefits?).

Another way of categorizing institutions is that of cui bono, i.e., who benefits? Blau and Scott (1962) have identified four possible beneficiaries of organizations. They are as follows:

1. Members. In this organization the members themselves benefit from the association. Examples of this type are all voluntary organizations, such as churches, social clubs, etc.

2. Owners, managers, stockholders. The big beneficiaries in this type of organization are the owners, managers, and investors, although the workers and society as a whole may also benefit. Examples of these are all the profit-making organizations in the free-enterprise system.

3. Commonweal. Beneficiary in this type of organization is the public at large, or society in general. Police, fire, sewerage disposal departments are typical of this category. It can be argued that all organizations should fall to some degree in this category; educational institutions perceive themselves as serving the public at large; but the criterion of primary beneficiary tends to fall short.

4. Clients. The primary beneficiary in this type of organization is the client. These organizations provide a specific service to clients who come voluntarily or mandatorily to the institution. Medical, mental health, and educational organizations are typical of this category. It is important to note that the difference between the first category

(members) and this category is the mutuality of benefit. While in the former, primary benefit is mutual, in the latter the primary benefit accrues to the client.

Client and Organizational Selectivity

Carlson (1964) has categorized organizations in terms of selectivity. His premise is that two groups (client and organization) have two options (allowed to select or not allowed to select). He has limited his discussion to 'service' organizations. Thus, four types of organizations can be identified. They are:

Type I. Client chooses to join; organization can choose to accept. These organizations include private schools, welfare organizations, and certain other service-oriented organizations.

Type II. Client chooses to join; organization cannot select. State colleges are examples of this type of organization.

Type III. Client cannot choose; organization can choose to accept. Carlson indicated that he knows of no service organization which actually fits this category. He rejects the military service (which does fit) because, according to him, it is not a service organization.

Type IV. Client does not choose; organization cannot choose. Public schools, mental health clinics, and prisons typify this category.

Networks in Organizational Typologies

Networks as organizations can be viewed in terms of the foregoing structural categories. In terms of social role, it appears that networks may serve a variety of roles. It can be suggested that networks have an important *managerial* function. They may be organized for the purpose of coordinating resources, plans, and activities. It also can be argued that networks have a *maintenance* role, namely that of teaching and perpetuating normative values and behaviors of the collective membership of the network and/or the controlling interest of the network structure. For example, the Midwest Teacher Corps Network not only attempted at times to coordinate activities and resources of the network, but also tried to influence the management of resources of its member projects by teaching its directors management theory and techniques; and of its parent Washington-based organization by communicating its feelings and concerns through its network organizational structure.

The Midwest Teacher Corps Network also served a maintenance role as it taught and perpetuated normative values and behaviors of National Teacher Corps to new projects entering into the Teacher Corps family and the Midwest Network.

There is a strong indication, however, that networks are basically *adaptive* organizations whose purposes involve the creation and/or development of knowledge, and the application of knowledge to problem-solving. The Midwest Teacher Corps Network survey data indicated a strong perceived role in terms of knowledge and information refinement, information sharing, and the application of such shared information for the purpose of specific and general project problem-solving.

When viewed in terms of *cui bono*, networks appear highly-oriented to members' mutual benefit, with a subsidiary benefit to the commonweal. The mutual benefit concept was strongly supported in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network data. The members in this case were Project Directors who constituted the Board of Directors of the Network. All of the respondent directors identified mutual benefit as a major purpose of the network. "Support", "sharing", "communicating", "assisting", were terms consistently used by directors to identify the purpose of the Network. It is interesting to note that when Midwest Teacher Corps Network Directors were asked what role groups would be desirable to include in the Network, they strongly supported the present structure, i.e., Project Directors. Other role groups were mentioned by a few respondents in terms of *cui bono*, but directors perceived their roles as key in the network. Other role groups mentioned were Deans of Colleges of Education, Superintendents, Chairpersons of Community Councils, and Team Leaders.

The client/organization selectivity criterion, described by Carlson, provides a bit less clarity in terms of networks. The critical issue in terms of networks is that of client selectivity. The question is one of whether or not the client has, or should have, the right to choose to join or not join, i.e., should involvement be mandatory or voluntary? Less critical is the selectivity issue on the part of the organization (network), i.e., whether a network must allow a client organization to affiliate if the client desires to do so.

One variable affecting the mandatory/voluntary client affiliation is that of the parent organization. For example, in 1974 when Teacher Corps National created networks, they mandated that all local projects be affiliated with a regional network. Thus, in the model, neither the client (local project) nor the network were allowed to choose, a la a Carlson Type IV. It must be pointed out, however, using the Midwest Teacher Corps Network as illustrative, that the mandatory relationship created few of the negative attitudes and behaviors on either organization's part as are evident in other Type IV institutions such as schools, prisons, etc. In fact, forcing clients to affiliate, provided the impetus for developing relationships that new projects may not have felt comfortable initiating themselves.

Another variable possibly affecting the mandatory/voluntary dilemma is that of focus for relating. If the focus were geographic, i.e., clients in a given region affiliating in a network relationship, it might be more reasonable to require affiliation. If, however, the focus of the network is problematic or thematic, voluntary client affiliation may make more sense. In either case, the network organization should be hard-pressed to be able to reject a client from affiliation if it so desires.

A third variable affecting the mandatory/voluntary situation is that of funding source. If affiliation with a network is supported by non-client funds (network or parent), then it would seem more acceptable for mandating client affiliation. If, on the other hand, funding for affiliation must be provided by the client, then the network or parent organization would be hard-pressed to insist on mandating such affiliation.

In terms of Teacher Corps Networks, National Teacher Corps awarded network contracts which provided funds for project affiliation; in turn, the local projects were mandated to affiliate with a regional network. When directors from the Midwest Teacher Corps projects were surveyed and asked whether network affiliation should be voluntary or mandatory, the majority of them indicated such affiliation should be voluntary.

Further, in terms of cui bono, directors were asked whether such benefit should be based on geography (regional affiliation) or theme (common-problem-oriented affiliation). The majority of respondents favored regional affiliation. One of the majority respondents felt that, although he favored regional affiliation, themes within the regional network might emerge, thus permitting directors to identify themes and become involved thematically as desired. Interestingly when combining the two variables, (regional/thematic; voluntary/mandatory), the data indicated no clear pattern.

Thus, in terms of organizational typology, networks generally are adaptive organizations, dealing with information and knowledge development, sharing, and application; affiliation primarily benefits members of the network through information sharing, support, and problem-solving; and client-centered organizations, where clients either are mandated or choose to join, but with little opportunity for veto power from the network for such affiliation.

Organizational Structure of Network Typology

One of the most pervasive organizational structures within which institutions function is that of a bureaucracy. This structural arrangement, in a sense, is the benchmark from which other structural arrangements deviate. The bureaucratic model, introduced by Max Weber (1947), has become the 'accepted' model within which the United States has been transformed from an agrarian economy to an industrial giant. Private industry adopted it; public agencies, including schools, adapted it. As a theoretical framework for organizational structure, it originally was viewed positively, and only in recent organizational history has it connoted a counter-productive dysfunctional image.

On its face, the bureaucratic model offers many positive characteristics. They are as follows:

1. Hierarchical structure, where authority is distributed in a pyramidal configuration and each official is responsible for his or her subordinates' actions and decisions.
2. Division of labor, where tasks are divided into specialty areas and individuals are assigned to tasks according to their training, skill, and experience.
3. Control by rules, where official decisions and actions are directed by codified rules, thus assuring uniformity, predictability and stability.
4. Impersonal relationships, where personal, emotional, and irrational elements are eliminated.

5. Career orientation, where employment is based on expertise, and promotion is given according to seniority and/or merit.

The advantages of the bureaucratic organizational model include technical efficiency, consistency and continuity, objectivity in decision-making, and routinization of problem-solving.

The disadvantages, which are unanticipated outcomes of the bureaucratic model and which are relevant for consideration in terms of network organizational structure, are as follows:

1. Deterence to the process of change.
2. Rigid adherence to rules and regulations.
3. Inability to anticipate and cope with unexpected events.
4. One-way (downward) communication, and the resultant communication filtering.
5. Coordination collapse among units within the structure.

Thus, it appears that in viewing network typology, the bureaucratic organizational model is not appropriate. First, networks, as adaptive and often temporary systems, can be classified as 'wild' organizations, according to Carlson's (1964) terms. 'Wild' organizations are those which struggle for survival, with no guarantee of continued input; whose support is closely related to the quality of output, which in the case of networks is the fulfillment of the goals and purposes of the organization; who are not protected at vulnerable points, such as the assurance of continued funding or having a monopolistic hold on its activities; and which may cease to exist. Networks must be adaptive to the changing needs and demands of its constituent members, as well as the external environment. A bureaucratic organizational structure, by its nature and character, providing stability, perpetuating the status quo, and being slow in adapting to change, is dysfunctional to network goals and activities. Networks as viewed by the Directors of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network were temporary, adaptive systems, whose major purposes were to communicate and provide support to its members.

Second, networks, as adaptive organizations, deal with information-sharing, knowledge development, and problem-solving. Again, Midwest Teacher Corps Network Directors indicated in the survey a strong base for networks as vehicles for communicating, sharing, and problem-solving. Engaged in this activity, individuals in networks tend to be highly-trained as skilled professionals. But, as Hoy and Miskel (1978) point out, professionals in a bureaucracy face unique problems. These will be discussed later in the section on the individual functioning in the organization.

Third, networks, as organizations which primarily benefit their own members, must be person-(member) centered, rather than organizational-centered, which is contradictory to the bureaucratic model.

Alternative organizational structures to the bureaucratic model have been developed and researched by many students of organizational systems and leadership theory. In common among them is a move away from the rigid, inflexible, pyramidal structure to a more open, flexible, shared-responsibility structure, more collegial in nature.

Such an alternative organizational structure appears to be more effective, functional and sensitive to network needs than the bureaucratic model.

One such open model, fairly typical of alternatives to the bureaucratic structure, is Likert's (1961) System 4. This system is one end of a continuum developed by Likert, along which organizations are placed according to the character of their superordinate-subordinate relationships. Likert's System I, the other end of the continuum, is identified as Exploitive-Authoritative, which closely approximates characteristics of a bureaucracy in its most negative light. System 4 is called Participative, and is based on the assumption that:

> organizations are optimally effective to the extent that its processes are such to insure maximum probability that in all interactions and in all relationships within the organization, each member, in the light of his background, values, desires, and expectations, will view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance. (Likert, 1961, p. 103)

The perception of support by members of the organization, an important facet in Likert's System 4 assumption, was strongly reinforced by Midwest Teacher Corps Network Directors, who consistently identified 'support' as an underlying basis for network maintenance.

Likert identified eight critical processes which must be addressed by an organization regardless of its structure. These processes are: leadership, motivation, communication, interaction/influence, decision-making, goal-setting, control, and training. Although all of these processes are important, only the processes of leadership, communication, and decision-making will be further discussed since these three processes were the ones identified most consistently by Midwest Teacher Corps Network Directors. The value will be toward System 4 structure which appears most compatable with network needs, and again reinforced with data collected from the Directors.

Leadership

A great body of literature is now available in terms of leadership theory and leadership styles. Gibb (1954) and Stogdill's (1948), early reviews, and a later one by Mann (1959), have negated the 'trait' approach to leadership, i.e., that leaders have certain innate identifiable personal characteristics, commonly known as 'leaders are born' theory.

Early research on leadership by Stogdill in the 1940's at Ohio State University, and the subsequent Ohio State Leadership Studies by Hemphill and Coons (1950) and Halpin (1966), identified two basic leadership dimensions: a system oriented dimension and a person-oriented one. These were identified respectively in the Ohio State Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire as Initiating Structure and Consideration. Other theorists and researchers have concluded with the same two dimensions, but used terms such as nomothetic and idiographic, task and social, employee and production, and goal emphasis and support orientations.

A further delineation of these two dimensions was made by Blake and Mouton, (1964), in their Managerial Grid, which conceptualized leadership styles. The Grid consists of two axes each on a scale of one to nine. The axes are labeled 'Concern for Production' and 'Concern for People.' For example, a 1,9 leader is highly relationship-oriented, focusing on good human and harmonious group relationships. A 9,1 leader, on the other hand, is highly task-oriented, and emphasizes production goals while minimizing good human and group relations. In the Grid, Blake and Mouton further identify a 9,9 leader (integrated, task and human relations), 1,1 leader (impoverished, with little concern for production or people), and a 5.5 leader (balanced high productivity and good relations).

Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Model introduces a third variable into the study of leadership. Fiedler contends that effectiveness of leadership style is contingent upon the type of situation in which the person is attempting to exert leadership. He has concluded that in very favorable situations (leader/member relations are good, task is well-defined, and the leader is in a well-defined position of power), or in very unfavorable situations (where the three above conditions are reversed), the most effective leadership style is that of task-orientation. In less favorable or somewhat unfavorable situations, a relationship-oriented style is more effective.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1976) Situational Leadership Model also contends that leadership style is dependent upon the situation in which leadership is exerted. Their model is based upon an interplay among (a) the amount of direction (task behavior) a leader gives, (b) the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and (c) the 'maturity' level that individuals in the group bring to bear on a specific task. Situational Leadership Theory suggests that as the level of maturity of the group increases in terms of accomplishing a specific task, leaders should reduce their task behavior and increase their relationship behavior. As the group continues to mature, the leader should reduce both task and relationship behavior as well. At that point the group is not only 'performance' mature, but 'psychologically' mature as well.

Situational Leadership can be related to McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y leadership styles. It must be pointed out, however, that McGregor's Theory is not primarily a leadership style theory, but basically a perception of how one views human beings. A Theory X view is one that perceives man as inherently evil, lazy, lacking in the desire to assume responsibility, needing coercion, and innately disliking work. Theory Y views man as good, desiring cooperative rather than competitive relations, potentially self-fulfilling, desirous of responsibility, and finding work intrinsically rewarding. How one views man, as a Theory X or Theory Y, will influence leadership style. Situational Leadership, appears to be based on a Theory Y approach, i.e., the assumption that individuals in the group have the potential to mature and accept responsibility, and can reinforce each other.

Network leadership must be based on Theory Y assumptions. As indicated above, networks are adaptive organizations, comprised of

trained skilled professionals who come together either mandatorily or voluntarily for specific goals and purposes. Network leadership needs to be viewed in situational terms, i.e., dependent on the maturity level of the group as it accomplishes specific tasks. Because tasks vary, and goals and needs change, network leadership needs to be responsive to changes in, and reflective of, group and individual needs.

Network leadership also needs to be viewed in terms of emergent and shared leadership where leadership can be performed by any member depending on the situation. This is consistent with Theory Y behavior and Situational Leadership Theory, and is an important consideration in System 4 organizational structure. While someone needs to be designated as the "leader" (in the Teacher Corps Network System, this role is titled Executive Secretary), acts of leadership can be and were performed by any member of the Network (Board of Directors), depending on the type of leadership and expertise needed by the group in a given situation.

Further, Teacher Corps Networks insured greater participative leadership by selecting a chairperson of the group from among the members of the network. The Chairperson worked closely with the Executive Secretary, whose basic role was one of coordination, communication, and facilitation.

Thus, the Midwest Teacher Corps Network data strongly supported the above leadership description. Group leadership, group processing, and group dynamics skills were identified by director members as important desired characteristics of a network leader. Task abilities, such as organizational, administrative, and management skills, also were highly desired by network members in their leader.

Communication

Communication permeates all social interaction. Although a definition with universal application is difficult because of the multifaceted nature of the process, Davis's (1967) definition may suffice. According to him, communication is "the process of passing information and understanding from one person to another" (p. 317). Barnard (1938) concluded that establishing communication is the first task of the organizer and the continuous task of the administrator.

Communication involves two people, a sender and receiver; and does not take place until the receiver interprets the information being transmitted. The understanding of a message, however, is a highly relative matter; it is possible for some understanding to take place between persons who do not speak the same language, through use of body motions, facial expressions, voice intonations, etc. Effective communication, however, is dependent on a high level of understanding.

Communication is purposive. Thayer (1961) lists four primary functions of organizational communication: informing, instructing or directing, influencing, and evaluating. Downs (1977) adds that lack of communication is also purposive, i.e., people avoid others when a relationship is unpleasant or competitive. Thus, reluctance to communicate is purposive.

Feedback is essential for high levels of communication understanding. Feedback is basically a response from someone who has received a message, and is essentially a process for correction, i.e., a means of reducing the chances of disparity between information received and the intended message sent.

Schmuck and Runkel (1972) conceptually view feedback as full two-way communication, which is a reciprocal process where each participant institutes and receives messages. An important element in feedback, as well as in sending messages, is that of congruence between verbal and non-verbal communication. An example in a network setting would be the verbal welcoming of a new member into the network emphasizing parity among all members, but non-verbally communicating to the new member that he is not yet equal in the influence and social dynamics of the network structure.

All organizations have formal and informal communication channels. The formal, according to Barnard (1938), flows through the hierarchy of authority. These channels must be (a) known to all members, (b) flow and carry to every member of the organization, and (c) be direct and short. Informal channels of communication are built around social relationships, where people are in proximity to each other and/or have common interests and values. Formal and informal communication channels potentially complement each other. Etzioni (1961), in identifying substantive communication in terms of instrumental and expressive, indicates that formal communication channels may focus more on instrumental, i.e., information, knowledge, cognitive-oriented; while informal channels can be helpful in terms of expressive, i.e., changing or reinforcing attitudes, norms, and values.

One important role of a network, as identified in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network data, was that of communicating and sharing. This was seen in terms of both instrumental and expressive communication, as expressed by one director, who saw the network "established as a communication, i.e., executive director to project directors to project staff and return (two-way communication)."

Other respondents viewed the network as "a linkage between projects and Teacher Corps Washington". Another director perceived the network in terms of "an opportunity to come together to share strategies, successes, failures, etc." Thus, respondents in the network identified communication as one of the major purposes for a network's existence.

Communication was also a skill viewed by Midwest Teacher Corps Network Directors as highly desirable in network leaders. Comments regarding leadership communication skills included: "communication skills (two-way) including influence upward (Washington)"; "competent administrator with high communication skills"; "high regard for the process of communications"; and "excellent communication skills". The need for such skills in network leaders was thus well-documented in the data.

Decision-Making

Decision-making is a process common to all organizations, and is closely linked with organizational structure and the administra-

tive/management process. Griffiths (1964) suggests that all functions of administration are best interpreted in terms of the decision-making process and that differences in organizations are due to differences in the decision-making structure in that organization. Put conversely, the structure of an organization, according to him, is determined by the decision-making process of the organization. Thus, Griffiths believes if one knows the decision-making process, one knows the organization.

Decision-making can be defined as a choice made from among alternatives. Implied in the definition is the need for alternatives known to the decision-maker(s). Thus, one assumption in decision-making theory is that alternatives are or can be known. This assumption, however, is limited; all alternatives can never be known. Further, due to decision-making time constraints, all alternatives that could be known may not be uncovered before a decision needs to be made.

Another assumption implicit in the definition is that of rationality, i.e., that the decision-maker(s) will make a rational choice from among all known alternatives. This assumption has questionable validity due to the nature of man, whose rationality is tempered by perception, emotionalism, bias, and narcissism. Thus, the choice made in any given situation is never totally rational, although rationality in decision-making is ideally valued.

The process of decision-making closely approximates that of problem-solving, i.e., identifying the problem (a felt need), determining alternatives, projecting consequences of each alternative, choosing one alternative, implementing, and evaluating the effectiveness of the decision with the possibility of returning to alternative re-selection if the evaluation indicates an ineffective choice.

Decision-making styles, as a part of leadership style, can be viewed on a continuum from very autocratic to one of collaboration and shared decision-making.

Schmuck and Runkel's (1972) delineation of decision-making styles are typical of the literature. They identify three basic decision-making styles. One is decision-making by a single person or by a minority group. In this style, the leader makes the decision unilaterally, independently or after consultation with selected staff, a cabinet, or other appropriate person. The second decision-making style is majority rule. In this case, the leader abides by the decision of the majority group. The leader's responsibility is to keep communication open so that all members are heard, and to protect the rights of the minority. The third decision-making style is support by the entire group, or consensus. In this style, the decision is supported by *all* members of the group. It is important to note, however, that consensus does not necessarily mean that all members *agree* with the decision; it does mean that all members *support* the decision, and are willing to give it a try. In this style, the leader is at parity with all other members in the group.

Of the three basic decision-making styles, it can be noted that the last two can be termed 'shared', in that the decision is made jointly by the leader and the group. It would appear, however, that only the last

style, consensus, might be termed collaborative decision-making, where collaboration implies parity, support, and trust.

In terms of Likert's organizational System 4, the last two are most desirable, with consensus epitomizing the organizational structure. Thus, networks would best be served by a decision-making style that is at least shared, and even better, collaborative in terms of consensus.

Support for shared and/or collaborative decision-making in a network was very strongly indicated in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network Directors' survey. When asked how decisions were made in the network, consensus/collaboration was mentioned by a majority of the respondents; the democratic process/majority rule was identified by a number of respondents. As one might expect, when asked how decisions in a network *should* be made, all respondents indicated that some form of shared decision-making was most desirable. Consensus-/collaboration was the modal response, followed by comments explicity or implicity identifying the democratic/majority rule approach.

As indicated earlier, the Midwest Teacher Corps Network was structured with all member Project Directors serving as a Board of Directors, and all involved in decision-making. When asked whether this organizational structure was satisfactory, a great majority of directors indicated satisfaction with the decision-making structure, although two of the respondents felt that a planning board, steering committee, or subgroup of the system should plan and make decisions.

One respondent felt that as the network membership increased, a planning board or steering committee needed to be created to assist in decision-making. Generally, the larger the organization, the more difficult consensual decision-making becomes, and the more likely it is that decisions will be made by minority (subgroups) of the organization. When asked their perception of the ideal size of a network, the majority of respondents indicated a range somewhere between 10-16 members. Two directors felt the ideal size would be less than ten, while the two others indicated the ideal being greater than 16. The membership of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network (14) and the general satisfaction with the decision-making structure, may have influenced this response.

Shared decision-making, particularly consensus, implies parity, i.e., all members of the organization are equal in input potential, influence, and decision-making. When asked whether they felt there was actual parity in decision-making, a majority of Midwest Teacher Corps Network Directors stated unequivocally or implied that there was, and that they felt positively about it. A small number of respondents indicated that parity existed at some times, but not at others.

Thus, networks, according to their typology and maximal organizational structure, can be described in terms of decision-making, with the most desired and valued decision-making structure being shared and collaborative. This desired characteristic is borne out in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network survey data, where director members

were highly supportive of shared, collaborative, consensual decision-making based on parity among members of the Network.

Summary of Networks as Organizations

Networks, as organizations, are adaptive, created to refine and share knowledge, and to help other organizations to apply theory and knowledge according to their needs. They are support systems, often temporary, or 'wild', which provide greatest benefit to participant members in terms of sharing ideas, knowledge, and application; and in terms of emotional, change-agent support. The Midwest Teacher Corps Network illustrated such organization. According to its member Project Directors, the network's major purpose was to provide a forum for sharing, for mutual assistance, and for mutual support to directors who were charged with the responsibility of providing leadership to local projects. These projects were to initiate and facilitate change in educational situations which by nature are slow to identify the need and the acceptance of change.

The organizational structure of networks must be viewed in terms of flexible involvement of members. The bureaucratic model, the benchmark structure of most American organizations, is ineffective in providing the flexibility and involvement necessary in Network organizations. A more effective network organizational model is Likert's System 4, which is based on participative management and decision-making, and open, two-way communication. The characteristics of this model are highly supported by Midwest Teacher Corps Network Directors, particularly in terms of leadership, communication, and decision-making. A desired leadership style in network operations reflects openness, situational-oriented, and emergent leadership acts emanating from network members, based on expertise and needs of the group in a particular problem situation. Desired network leader skills include communication, which functions as two-way interactions; decision-making; and administrative/management skills. Decision-making in a network reflects a shared, collaborative pattern, with a democratic/majority orientation; but most desirable, a consensual decision-making style.

Networks are unique organizations, functioning generally as temporary support, communication, and problem-solving systems for its members. Structural patterns need to reflect network uniqueness. Organizational characteristics of openness, parity, and collaboration are dominant components of such network organizational structures.

Systems Theory: Organizational and Individual

A system may be simply defined as a complex of elements in mutual interaction. This general definition has broad appeal, and is equally applicable to an organization such as a network, and to individuals functioning within organizations. Thus, systems can refer to organizations as well as individuals. (This section is based on Griffiths, 1964).

Systems, according to the theory, may be open or closed. An open system relates to and makes exchanges with its environment. For example, an open individual system relates to its external environment through communication exchanges, influence, and input-output activities. A closed system is not related to, nor does it make exchanges with the environment. By this definition, there is no such thing as a totally closed system. A closed system is further characterized by an increase in entropy, while open systems tend toward a steady state. Open systems have certain characteristics which distinguish them from closed systems. Again, the theory applies equally well to organization systems as well as individual (human) systems.

Characteristics are as follows:

1. Open systems exchange matter, energy, and information with the environment, i.e., they have inputs and outputs. In terms of adaptive organizations in general, and networks in particular, such exchanges are made through linkages with supra-systems and sub-systems. For example, the Midwest Teacher Corps Network linked with the supra-system (Washington National Teacher Corps) through the Executive Secretary, who represented the network at Network Executive Secretary meetings. The Midwest Teacher Corps Network linked with sub-systems through its participant members (Board of Directors) who themselves were directors of local Teacher Corps projects. The individual in the Network organization also made exchanges with the environment, through the Board of Directors' communication exchanges and as Project Directors. As open system persons, they interacted with other individuals, professionally, personally and socially.

2. Open systems tend to maintain themselves in steady states, i.e., a constant ratio is maintained among components of the system, given a continuous input to the system. A non-human example is that of a candle, which when lit has a small flame, but grows to its "normal" size as long as the air remains constant. In like manner, an open organization maintains a steady state as long as the external environment provides consistent input to it. In the Midwest Teacher Corps Network, the organization maintained a steady state as long as external funding was consistent and external influences remained relatively constant.

An open individual system also displays this characteristic. One can maintain a fairly steady disposition as long as external pressures and influences remain quite constant.

3. Open systems are self-regulating. This is a corollary of the second characteristic. In the candle example, a change in air such as a draft, will affect the flame, but it will return to normal as the external environment stabilizes. An open organization will also self-regulate. For example, if financial input changes, the open organization will adapt to it, and will return to a steady state probably at a different level. If the goals of an organization are changed by the external environmental input, the organization will adapt, i.e., self-regulate and return to a steady state with new goals and objectives. Of course, if the

change in the external environmental input is extremely radical, it may "kill" the organization system. An example of this is the total elimination of budgeting dollars for Teacher Corps Networks; this in effect eliminated the system.

Likewise an open individual system self-regulates. If a "virus" strikes the system, the defense mechanisms are triggered into action, thus self-regulating the system toward a steady state once more.

4. Open systems display equifinality. This refers to fairly identical results obtained from different initial conditions. Teacher Corps Networks illustrated this point in terms of open organization systems. Thirteen regional Teacher Corps Networks which differed in terms of organization structures, decision-making processes, and communication processes spanned the United States. Yet, there was a distinct similarity across these networks in terms of results, i.e., fulfilling the goals and purposes identified in the Networks' contracts. Thus, Teacher Corps Networks displayed equifinality.

Individual open systems also display this characteristic. An obvious illustration is that of premature babies, who, at adulthood, cannot be distinguished from their full-term counterparts. Also illustrative of individual open systems were Midwest Teacher Corps Network Directors. While each was a unique person who directed his/her local project uniquely, a great equifinality is indicated as these directors interacted in the Network. Concerns, problems, and ideas seemed to be similar, although they emanated from different and unique persons and projects.

5. Open systems maintain steady states in part, through the dynamic interplay of sub-systems operating as functional processes. In other words, various parts of the system function without persistent conflicts that can neither be resolved nor regulated. The Midwest Teacher Corps Network again illustrated this characteristic. The Network was made up of Project Directors, who constituted the Network Board of Directors. As they met and functioned, conflicts were few, but when they did occur, they were resolved and/or regulated. There appeared to be a dynamic interplay of sub-systems, as exemplified by Project Directors working together in a network organization.

The individual system functions with this characteristic also. Parts of the body are in dynamic interplay with each other, with few conflicts and much coordination. Interpersonally also, open individual systems display the ability to interact with others in a complementary, cooperative mode, with little conflict; and with resolution and/or regulation of conflicts when they do exist.

6. Open systems maintain their steady state through feedback processes. Feedback refers to that output of a system which is fed back to the input, which in turn affects succeeding output, adjusting future conduct leading to succeeding output. Feedback can come from internal output or external output, i.e., the system can use some of its output, or that of another system, as input which will affect succeeding

output. In the section on Communication, feedback was interpreted in terms of two-way communication, which illustrates the external dimension of feedback.

As an open organization system makes interchanges with the environment, it can use part of this for feedback and adjust succeeding output based on the feedback. All aspects, both individual and organizational, distort, filter, and screen external feedback in an attempt to maintain a steady state. The degree to which a system distorts, filters, and screens feedback is a function of the openness of the system, i.e., the more open the system, the less distortion is needed to maintain a steady state.

7. Open systems display progressive segregation. The process occurs when the system divides into hierarchical orders of subordinate systems, which gain a certain independence of each other. In organization terms, the system becomes bureaucratized. It loses its dynamism and "wildness", and becomes "domesticated". It is important to note that in terms of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network this process had not happened. This may have been due to the temporary, vulnerable, "wildness" of Teacher Corps Networks, which never provided enough long-range security to become "institutionalized".

Thus, when viewed in terms of systems theory, characteristics of open systems apply equally well to organizations, and to individuals within organizations. It would appear to follow naturally that as organization systems move toward openness, the individual systems within the organization must out of necessity move in that direction also. Dysfunctionality may be the result of incongruence between openness of the organization system and the individuals who function within the organization.

The Individual in the Organization

While much has been written about organizations and leadership from the perception of the organization and leader, the literature is sparse concerning characteristics of individuals functioning in organizations. It is the assumption in this section that, because networks are seen as adaptive organizations, those same dimensions in terms of operational characteristics desirable in adaptive organizations are also desirable in individuals who function within those organizations.

As indicated earlier, because a bureaucratic structure may be dysfunctional in an adaptive organization, such a model is also dysfunctional to persons functioning within adaptive organizations. Network member participants will likely be professionally trained persons who are leaders in their own right. For example, Midwest Teacher Corps Network participant members, constituting the Board of Directors, were each directors of local Teacher Corps projects.

Such professional leaders will find participation in a bureaucratic structure difficult and frustrating. As Hoy and Miskel (1978) point out,

there are at least four areas of tension for a professional in a bureaucracy. They are:

1. Best interests of clients vs. best interests of organization. As a professional, the practitioner adheres to an explicit or implicit code of professional ethics which places the client's best interests as paramount. In a bureaucracy, however, the best interests of the organization take top priority.

2. Colleague reference vs. superior reference. Reference groups function to set standards, identify, and perpetuate norms and values for individuals who accept the group as a referent. Professional practitioners perceive their reference group as other professionals in the same practice. For example, norms, standards and values for medical doctors are determined by peer practitioners. The same is generally true of attorneys, and is often true of teachers. In a bureaucracy, however, norms, standards and values are determined in the organization through the hierarchy; i.e., superiors determine organization norms, standards and values for their subordinates.

3. Professional Decision-making vs. Organizational Decision-making. Professional persons are practitioners who base their practice on theory and/or conceptual frameworks. For professionals, theory serves as a guide to practice. Thus, decisions made by the practicing professional are based on theory which is relevant to the practice. Such decisions may or may not be in the best interests of the organization. In a bureaucracy, however, decisions are made by hierarchical administrators in the best interest of the organization.

4. Standards which control practice. As indicated in Point 2, norms, standards, and values for the professional practitioners are developed by peer colleagues. For example, standards for professional practice of medicine are developed and enforced by peers. In a bureaucracy, standards, which are determined and enforced by the organization, have little flexibility based on the role of individuals functioning in the organization.

Thus, it appears that the bureaucratic structure creates problems for persons functioning in adaptive organizations, such as networks. Network participants tend to be professionals and leaders, and thus are client-, colleague- and professional-oriented rather than oriented to a closed bureaucratic organizational structure.

Getzels and Guba (1957) in their Social Systems Model also speak to the individual within the organization. They identify two components which affect organization behavior of individuals: nomothetic and idiographic. The nomothetic component refers to the organization's role and role expectations within the organization. But the model also identifies the idiographic component, i.e., the individual who functions within the organization. To each organizational role, the role encumbent brings his unique personality, which influences the organizational role in terms of the person occupying it. To role expectations of the organization, the individual brings his unique needs dispositions and tendencies and predispositions to behave in certain ways in given circumstances.

Thus, the organization is actually made up of people, who bring their own specific being to the organization role. This dynamic interplay of individual personality and organization role results in observable behavior of individuals within the organization.

Just as it is desirable that leaders in organizations have a Theory Y orientation, (in terms of McGregor's Theory X and Y), so it is desirable that individuals in adaptive organizations are Theory Y orientated also. As indicated earlier, network participants, as illustrated in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network, were leaders in their own right. As leaders, they tend to value Theory Y principles in working with their own constituents. If in fact they do lead from a Theory Y orientation, it follows that they bring that same orientation to networks as participants in them. Because the two theories are in fact personal predispositions in how one perceives others, it would constitute abnormal and inconsistent behavior for an individual to function in one role as Theory X and another as Theory Y. Networks, as adaptive organizations for sharing and communicating, need for survival persons oriented to McGregor's Theory Y. If one functions in the opposite, i.e., untrusting and with little faith in the basic value of others, the role of the network as a sharing and communicating vehicle is jeopardized, and the organization will atrophy and die.

Hersey and Blanchard (1976) also speak to the individual functioning in an organization in terms of Situational Leadership. As indicated earlier, they theorize that leader behavior should change as a function of group maturity, and individual maturity of individual members of the group. Such maturity is specific to the problem or issue facing the group; thus, individuals and/or groups can function with great maturity in one situation, and with little maturity in another. Hersey and Blanchard view maturity along two components: "task" and "psychological". "Task" maturity involves understanding the job to be done, and the goals, purposes and objectives of the specific task at hand. "Psychological" maturity involves group processing, i.e., where individuals function appropriately and effectively in the group, and the group dynamics are such that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.

Thus, an extrapolation from their view of maturity is the suggestion that individuals in groups (organizations) need to be open, receptive, and trusting persons so that the group matures psychologically. This is particularly true in adaptive organizations such as networks. In general, the Midwest Teacher Corps Network Directors indicated that they felt the Board of Directors functioned well in terms of sharing, supporting, and communicating, and in terms of parity and consensual decision-making; i.e., it was perceived as highly psychologically mature.

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CHAPTER 4

DEVELOPMENTAL NETWORK MODEL

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The purpose of this chapter is to set forth and explicate a developmental network model which represents one perspective from which to view the networking process. It has evolved from the attempts of this monograph's authors to converge organizational theory and actual practice, i.e. their own personal experiences as active network participants over a period of several years. The model is intended to serve as a conceptual framework for describing and analyzing the professional networking process.

The Model

Professional networks are formed by individuals or groups who share something in common and who seek linkages with others. As defined in Chapter 1, a network is an interconnected or interrelated group of individuals or institutional representatives who have formed to encourage communication among individuals who generally have no other way to communicate directly, and to provide services that individual institutions cannot sustain on their own. Many types of professional groups such as lawyers, clergymen and school superintendents have established networks. In the case study presented here, the network included educators who directed the federally funded Teacher Corps projects.

Because networks are formed by individuals or groups who already occupy a given position and/or serve an institution, they are temporary social systems. They exist, in relationship to permanent systems, for the purposes of achieving certain organizational goals as well as satisfying personal needs of the individual network participants. The needs of individual network members may involve peer support, professional development, collegial relationships, and personal growth. As a temporary social system, a network also establishes organizational goals which may include the delivery of various services, the exchange of resources, the establishment of linkages, and the communication of ideas and information.

The individual network participant is a critical factor in the functioning of the network as a viable and successful organization. This dynamic interaction between the individual and the organization constitutes the key feature of the developmental network model. As Figure 1 indicates, a network includes two domains: the personal and the organizational.

Figure 1. DEVELOPMENTAL NETWORK MODEL

Personal refers to the nature of the individual as a participant in the network; organizational refers to the structural characteristics of the network. Both the personal and organizational domains can be delimited in terms of two bi-polar traits which appear at either end of a continuum. As shown by the arrows in the diagram, these two continua are not fixed but rather are in a never-ending process of growth. The trait on each continuum coterminous with the arrowhead represents the "ideal" trait: the type of individual and organizational structure most conducive to successful network functioning. In other words, when these traits are realized, the network will be most productive in terms of achieving organizational goals and most effective in terms of satisfying individual needs. These ideal network goals, both in terms of the organization and the individual, are represented by the arrow emanating from the vertex of the personal and organizational axes. These network goals are not static but instead generate a dynamic interplay between the individual and the organization. Therefore the

growth of a network is a continuous developmental process which progresses toward an ideal state in terms of the structure of the organization and the nature of the individual to satisfy and achieve goals.

Organizational Domain

The organizational domain is circumscribed by the two bi-polar traits: bureaucratic and adaptive. The discussion in Chapter 3 provides the basis from which to glean the salient contrasting features of these two types of organizational structures. They are as follows:

Bureaucratic	Adaptive
1. Hierarchical structure	Shared responsibility
2. Division of labor	Situational leadership
3. Control by rules	Flexible rules and regulations
4. Impersonal relationships	Collegiality
5. Career orientation	Person orientation

As described by its salient characteristics, a bureaucratic network structure emphasizes the needs of the organization and the successful achievement of organizational goals. Its hierarchical structure distributes authority in a pyramidal configuration with status and rank clearly differentiated. As such, each individual assumes a specified role in terms of his/her responsibilities in the network with leadership roles explicitly established. This division of labor presumably facilitates efficient operation. In this type of network, guidelines and rules for procedures, behavior, and decision-making are set forth and strictly adhered to by the participants. Decisions are generally made either by the leader or by the majority of members. Interpersonal relationships are of an impersonal nature. This network is termed "career oriented" since it establishes mechanisms for network stability and the maintenance of the organizational structure.

The adaptive network structure presents a striking contrast to the bureaucratic one. Its orientation combines the attaining of organization goals with the fostering of professional and personal growth of its members. Because network members are usually highly trained professionals, the adaptive network stresses shared responsibility for tasks and equality among peers. Leadership for activities and programs varies among individual members as a function of the specific situation. Decisions are reached through consensus of the members. When consensus decision making is operant, the leader is at parity with the other group members. While an adaptive network maintains norms for behavior and guidelines for procedures, these are flexible and are modified as the need arises. Relationships among members are collegial with much peer support and open communication. This type of network is described as "person oriented" since it emphasizes personal growth of its members, rather than the continuance of the organization. This focus makes an adaptive network vulnerable with the possibility that it may cease to exist when it no longer serves the needs of its members.

Personal Domain

The personal domain may also be circumscribed in terms of two bipolar types of individual network participants: closed and open. A comparison of these two types of individuals in terms of network participation follows:

Closed	Open
1. Lack of trust of others	High level of trust
2. Reticent to share ideas and concerns	Willing to share ideas and concerns
3. Suspicious of external environment	Receptive to external environment
4. Intolerant of differing points of view	Tolerant of differing beliefs and ideas
5. Task oriented	Balance between task orientation and personal needs disposition

As illustrated above, many traits distinguish the open and closed network participant. These traits form a composite personality for two distinct types of individuals.

A closed individual participates in a network as a representative of his/her institution with the primary intent of deriving certain benefits for that institution. His/her participation in the network is probably not voluntary but is rather mandated as part of his/her position. As such, this individual views network membership from a task oriented perspective and hesitates to share personal ideas and concerns. Lacking trust in others, this individual feels external influences are a threat to organizational stability and personal security. Therefore, he/she appears intolerant of viewpoints which differ from his/her own.

In marked contrast, an open individual perceives network participation as not only accomplishing organizational goals but also providing opportunity for personal and professional growth. His/her network membership is most likely voluntary, or if mandated by his/her position, is assumed willingly. Receptive to new ideas and external influences, this person is tolerant of viewpoints which differ from his/her own. The open individual communicates freely with others and eagerly shares ideas as well as personal concerns and problems. Because the open person believes the network is a peer support system, he/she maintains a high level of trust for the other network members.

Network Growth

The growth of a network represents a developmental process which involves the continuous interaction between the individual participant and the organizational structure. When a network first begins, individual members enter into it with their own personal needs and their own intentions for network goals. As the network evolves its purposes, plans its activities, and develops its organizational structure, members assume varying degrees of leadership, responsibility and participation. As stated previously, successful networks have been

characterized as fluid structures which are flexible and adaptable. They are composed of individuals who are willing to be "open" and provide a supportive, sharing system for colleagues in an accepting and nonthreatening environment. When this occurs, the network will be ideally effective in both achieving organizational goals and satisfying personal needs. But this type of network operation does not happen automatically; it requires a developmental growth process both in terms of the organization and the person.

When networks begin, they may tend to adopt a more bureaucratic structure and the individual members may be more guarded and reticent. This is predictable in a new social system as individuals are tentatively testing the value of the network and forming new collegial relationships. Certain factors, however, contribute to the maturational process of a network as it moves toward a more adaptive structure and more open individuals.

The first factor is *time* itself. The longer a network is maintained, the greater the likelihood that natural changes will occur. Over time, network change is both predictable and desirable. For instance, new members will join the network bringing different perspectives and causing new interaction patterns. On the other hand, veteran members may leave a network causing certain voids in terms of shared responsibility and leadership. Changes which occur in the permanent systems with which the network is linked may also influence the network operation. Still another type of change over time may involve financial considerations with an increase or decrease in the available monetary resources as well as alterations in funding sources. And hopefully, the network members themselves will change in terms of increased commitment to the network and openness regarding collegial relationships. If these and other kinds of natural changes do not occur, the network will stagnate and cease to either accomplish organizational goals or satisfy personal needs. To survive, the network must remain dynamic, fluid, and responsive to change in its external environment.

A second factor contributing to growth is *shared experience*. As network members cooperatively plan, implement and evaluate network activities and projects, they accumulate many shared experiences. These experiences influence future interactions among members both in their personal and professional relationships. As people share successes and failures, they build an experiential base on which to foster collegiality and mutual respect. In addition, the network establishes certain traditions or rituals that add to the importance of shared experience. For instance, networks may develop a reputation for publishing quality materials, delivering services in an effective way, or promoting the successful sharing of resources. As these shared experiences increase, they affect the direction of network structure and the satisfaction felt by its members.

The shared experiences also contribute to the third factor in network growth, a *sense of ownership*. As network members establish their role in the network structure, they need to feel that their ideas are valued, their status is at parity with others, and their influence felt in

terms of decision making. In other words, network members perceive themselves as an integral part of network governance and operations, i.e. ownership for the network. This ownership is achieved through collaborative activity, consensus decision making and parity among members. Ownership is also achieved as network purposes and missions complement or coincide with the individual personal "agendas" of its participants. Network members are more willing to actively give to the network when they feel the benefits to them are commensurate. The greater the degree of sense of ownership, the more likely an individual member is to work to accomplish network goals and satisfy personal needs.

A fourth factor contributing to the growth process is *conflict.* Conflict, as the passage of time itself, is a predictable aspect of networking. When highly trained professionals interact together, differences of opinion are inevitable. Conflict can be damaging and destructive to the success of the network or it can be used as a vehicle for self-regulation and growth. Conflicts, if confronted honestly and resolved positively, can be a productive means to keep the network vital and to act as an impetus for change. Through the resolution of conflict, individuals must accept differing opinions, commmunicate honestly, and compromise to reach a solution. The resolution of conflict also affords individuals an opportunity to better understand themselves and others.

This better understanding of self and others leads to the fifth and most critical factor in network growth as it strives to be more adaptive and open: *a sense of trust.* Trust relates closely to the other four factors contributing to network growth. In terms of time, the longer individuals work together, the greater the likelihood that trust will be able to develop between them. This sense of trust is also aided by shared experiences and sharing a sense of ownership for the network with other colleagues. The positive resolution of conflicts enables individuals to express opinions and work toward a compromise solution. In resolving conflict, individuals develop a better understanding of others which removes barriers between people and enables them to become more receptive to and tolerant of the beliefs and ideas of others. As individuals work together, share experiences, communicate with each other and resolve conflicts, they will develop respect for one another both professionally and personally. Mutual respect and understanding provide the basis on which individuals develop a sense of trust of one another. Without such a sense of trust, it is doubtful that an individual network participant can be "open."

Four Cell Design

Another approach for depicting the model is to formulate a four cell design as illustrated in Figure 2.

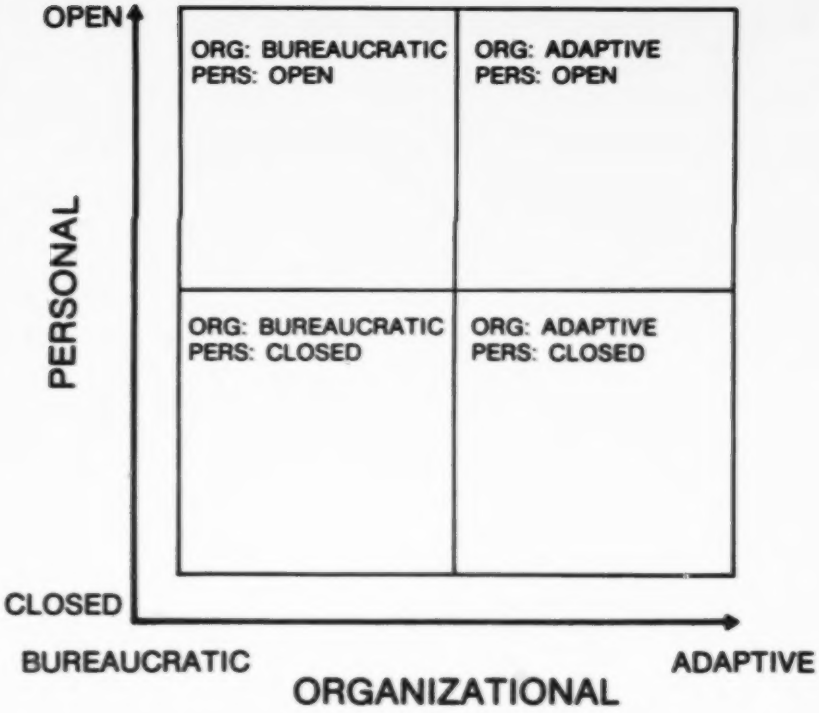

Figure 2. FOUR CELL DESIGN

This type of cellular design provides a scheme by which to discuss network operations in terms of two conditions: functional and dysfunctional. When the network is in a functional condition, a high degree of congruence exists between the individual personality of the network participant and the type of organizational structure. In contrast, when the network is dysfunctional, a low degree of congruence exists between the individual personality and the type of organizational structure. Two cells of the model can be considered functional and two cells dysfunctional.

The two cells of the model that represent the functional condition of the network are: bureaucratic/organizational - closed/personal and adaptive/organizational - open/personal. In both of these conditions, congruence exists between the type of individual network participant and the organizational structure. However, as stated previously, the ideal prototype for effective network operations occurs when open individuals participate in an adaptive structure.

The two cells of the model which describe a dysfunctional state are: bureaucratic/organizational - open/personal and adaptive/organizational - closed/personal. An open individual feels frustrated and stifled

in a bureaucratic organization. Seeking peer support, opportunities to share, and collegiality, the open person finds it difficult to function in a structure dominated by rules, hierarchy and impersonal relationships. Similarly, a closed person feels threatened and uncomfortable in an adaptive organization. The closed person desires the security of a structure that is circumscribed with a clear set of expectations and differentiation of roles. The flexibility and fluid nature of the adaptive organization make it difficult for the closed individual to participate fully in the network. Both types of interaction lead to dysfunction hindering network efforts to either satisfy personal needs or achieve organizational goals.

Superimposed on the four cell design is the developmental process of the network as it grows and matures. As described in Chapter 3, a mature network not only accomplishes its "tasks", i.e. goals, purposes and objectives but also reaches psychological maturity in that individuals function with maximum effectiveness as group members. Further, it was pointed out that to attain such psychological maturity, individuals need to be "open."

However, when a network first begins, it is common for the structure to be more rigid and the individuals more reticent and guarded. Network participants are initially skeptical regarding the goals of the network and the benefits to be derived as members. As the network maintains itself over time, the contributing factors discussed earlier provide impetus for change. Ideally as the network progresses, it will move toward a more adaptive organization with the individual participants becoming more open.

The course of network development, however, is not necessarily a linear process. All networks do not begin at one end of each continuum and smoothly progress toward the other. Setbacks, conflicts and successes may cause the path of network development to look more like zigzagged lines as a network may weave in and out of the functional and dysfunctional cells. At certain times it may even appear as if no network growth is occurring.

In addition, network growth is not a unitary phenomenon. It occurs both within each domain, the personal and the organizational, and between the domains as the continuous interaction between them takes place. For example, within the personal domain, an individual network participant may communicate very openly with some of his/her colleagues but may remain more reticent and guarded with others. Similarly, the structure itself may reflect a bureaucratic stance on some matters and an adaptive mode on others. For instance, while situational leadership may prevail, budgetary matters may involve rigid rules and regulations.

In terms of interaction between the personal and organizational domains, network growth can also be monitored. When a very open individual tries to participate in a bureaucratic structure, incongruence exists. Conversely, a closed individual experiences conflict when attempting to operate in an adaptive structure. The process of give and take between the organizational structure and the individual can also provide impetus for network change and movement along each

continuum. When the nature of the individual and the structure of the organization clash, either the individual must adapt in some way to meet the structure or the structure must modify certain aspects to accommodate the individual. Oftentimes the individual and organizational structure will simultaneously change in response to each other.

While the ideal prototype for the network may be an adaptive structure with open individuals, certain external factors may hinder the achievement of this prototype in reality. For instance, the network funding source may circumscribe certain conditions for network operations which may be more rigid in terms of how money is spent. Or the permanent systems who "parent" the network may mandate certain rules and procedures for operation which are not subject to modification. These types of external factors, beyond the control of individual members, may influence network operation and hinder growth along the continuum. However, they need not discourage a network toward striving for the ideal. The dynamic interplay between the individual and the organization will continue to propel the network forward to hopefully, over time, become more adaptive and open and achieve psychological maturity.

Summary

The development network model is based on the assumption that networks are growing and maturing temporary social systems. A network can be described in terms of the continuous and dynamic interaction between two domains: the personal (characteristics of network members) and the organizational (characteristics of network social structure). Certain factors contribute to the maturational process of the network: time, shared experience, sense of ownership, conflict and trust. Network operations can also be characterized in terms of two conditions: functional and dysfunctional. The type of interaction between the personal and organizational domains which contributes to the most productive network functioning both in terms of the achievement of organizational goals and the satisfaction of individual needs occurs when an open individual interacts in an adaptive organizational structure.

CHAPTER 5

PRACTICAL CONCERNS RELATED TO NETWORKING

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The collective experiences of members of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network are illustrative of a variety of generic concerns that must be addressed by network planners and participants. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss four categories of concerns which are characteristic of networking and to illustrate those concerns based upon the experiences of members of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network. Within the context of this chapter each concern will be described, specific examples will be provided, and the lessons learned will be summarized.

Concern #1: Network's Purpose — Is It Worth the Time?

It is not uncommon for new members of a network or individuals considering organizing a network to be skeptical of its value. While many factors contribute to this questioning, two related factors seem to be most prominent. The first concerns confusion about the purpose of the network and the second involves time commitment.

The concept of networking has become fashionable as a means for attempting to understand the interrelatedness of complex organizations during a time of limited resources. The increased use of the term has resulted in a wide variety of interpretations related to the purpose of a network. To some the purpose is simple communication; to others the mission is a more systematized way of delivering services; and to a growing number the primary purpose is the mutual exchange of resources and mutual support. Due to this variation in interpretation, new network members or individuals considering organizing a network are often confused about the primary purpose of the network.

A second source of skepticism concerns the time that must be committed to the network. Becoming involved in a network in all cases requires a time commitment and sometimes a commitment of financial resources as well. For many individuals, time is a greater concern than money since they often experience difficulty in keeping up with the immediate demands being placed on their time. The commitment of time is related to the network's purpose. For example, if the primary purpose is the mutual exchange of resources (experience, expertise, ideas, services), more time is required than it would be if the purpose is limited to simple communication among participating organizations. Although empirical evidence is lacking in this area, it makes sense that the degree to which participation in a network is worth time expended

is directly related to the degree to which the network increases the capacity of individuals and their organizations to achieve their specific goals. Such benefits, of course, depend on the purpose of the network, and it is within this context that we discuss a variety of purposes that were evidenced in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network.

Mutual Support System. While a network may assume a variety of purposes, a common primary purpose is that of providing a mutual support system. The role of a director, in the case of Teacher Corps or any specialized group, is often a lonely one. Networks can and do provide mutual support and understanding. As has been discussed in previous chapters, this was viewed as the most prominent purpose described collectively by the Midwest Teachers Corps Network directors. Collegial interaction between and among network participants allowed individuals to clarify expectations, to console one another for disappointments, and to congratulate one another on successful achievements which generally resulted in a common bondedness or sense of community among the participants.

An excellent example of network mutual support occurred when each project received word in July that it must plan, organize, and conduct community elections within 90 days. Panic besieged the directors, but after the initial shock wore off, plans were made. Since the Midwest Teacher Corps Network had been in place and trust relationships had been initiated, members of the network effectively provided general support for one another. Tentative plans were discussed as well as needed financial, human, and material resources. As a result of the interaction, plans were modified and confidence was established. Although technical support was available for the community council elections, it was network organization that provided the means for discussing and planning so that formal requests for assistance could be effectively made.

Mutual Exchange of Resources. Closely related to developing a mutual support system is the purpose of developing a mutual exchange of resources in networks. In their book entitled *Human Services and Resource Networks*, Sarason, et. al. (1977) provided a detailed description of the resource exchange network. With resource exchange as a primary purpose of a network, participants relied on one another to accomplish their goals more effectively and efficiently. This in turn enhanced a common bondedness among network participants. To these ends, network members informally exchanged services, ideas, expertise, and experiences. It was through such collaborative efforts that linkages were made and new horizons were unveiled for individuals and their organizations. Mutual learning, development, and interdependence were also noted as important outcomes of resource exchange networks (Sarason, et. al., 1977). While many of the aforementioned benefits of such a network have been experienced and documented at the community level by Sarason, et. al., similar results were encountered in the more complex Midwest Teacher Corps Network.

The director's role group organization of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network facilitated the exchange of expertise. Experienced directors were often sought out by novice directors to provide assistance in a wide variety of areas ranging from program design to program budgeting. Such contacts originated at network meetings and were often followed by a visit to the project by the expert director or by a visit to the more experienced director's project by members of the novice director's staff. Material sharing also took place formally and informally. When project materials, manuals, and newsletters were developed for local project use, it was customary to make additional copies for the network projects. This led to second and third generation material development within the Midwest Teacher Corps Network. Another example of the mutual exchange of resources was the identification of consultants. Often network participants would identify an area of general need and a network meeting would be devoted to interaction among network members and outside consultants. The consultants were often identified by the Executive Secretary after polling directors and experts in the field. An unintended consequence of this effort was that the most successful consultants soon were invited to local projects by impressed network participants. In effect, the network meetings gave members an opportunity to observe and review outside consultants before committing local resources.

Demonstration Forum. A network may serve as a demonstration forum so that participants can share successes and failures with other groups and individuals who have common interests and needs. The demonstration forum may be formal with presentations and displays or informal with round table discussions. The most successful demonstration discussions which took place in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network were informal. Specific round table discussions or informal discussions which followed formal ones allowed network participants to ask probing and critical questions. Questions of a critical and probing nature never would have been asked without the trust relationships which the network fostered. Within the network, some demonstrations took place which were in a preliminary stage. From the demonstration the presentor often was able to seek feedback which would enhance planning for a demonstration in more formal settings. Members of the network audience, in addition to learning about new developments prior to the public at large, were able to discern strengths and weaknesses of their own projects. Because the Midwest Teacher Corps Network was a relatively mature organization (Chapters 3 and 4), it served as a vital forum for dissemination and demonstration.

Lobbying. Many aspects of education are certainly political in nature. One purpose of a network can be to serve as an activist or lobbyist to promote and seek support for common ideas or goals. The network can become a focal point where individuals can plan, organize strategies, and produce outreach programs that develop awareness for a cause or a program. Members of a network have common

professional interests and goals and represent a variety of geographical locations; if structured like the Midwest Teacher Corps Network, they can become a very effective lobbyist group.

In the case of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network, "education that is multicultural" became a major cause in which the network took a strong advocacy position. Through the network, members were able to learn more about education that is multicultural. This knowledge served to promote greater awareness of problems involved and greater self-confidence regarding the possibility that significant strides could be made. Through the network, participants were able to develop strategies to better educate their project staffs, university and school faculties, and community members. When legislation related to multicultural education programs was pending, members of the network were able to inform a variety of legislators about the pros and cons of the legislation. Moreover, the network served as a forum for gathering and synthesizing scattered information so that it could be shared with interested individuals in the project, many of whom informed others including federal and state legislators.

Lessons Learned.

1. Examine the time commitment. When participation in a network is considered, time and resource commitment is an issue that must be examined seriously and carefully. It must be examined in both individual and organizational terms and in light of the agreed upon purpose of the network. The general consensus of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network participants was that involvement in the network was valuable and participation did in fact facilitate the purpose of the local projects.

An essential feature in the success of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network was the congruence between the purposes of the network and the purposes of the local project. The network served as an enabler for the local project and network participants were able to readily translate network functions into local project practices.

2. Understanding the purposes. It has been stated in earlier chapters that a successful network is one which is moving toward an adaptive organization. An adaptive organization is a complex one which may assume multiple purposes or missions. Our experiences demonstrated that there was a greater potential for success when all involved clearly understood the intent (purpose) of the network function. Without such understanding, dissonance can limit progress. Therefore, it becomes imperative that the network have a means of clearly identifying both its primary purpose for existence and the specific purposes of its various activities.

3. Capitalize on the "Gives and Gets" principle. The "Gives and Gets" principle was emphasized in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network. This simply meant that participants gave both of themselves and of their projects and in turn benefited both individually and in terms of their projects. This principle is identified in the literature

(Sarason, et. al., 1977; Friend, Power, and Yewlett, 1974) and was illustrated in the network experience as an essential component. With extensive time commitments, few people are in positions to assist individuals in other organizations unless they also receive assistance when they need it. Hence, a networking situation in which participants only give or only receive would be dysfunctional.

Concern #2: How Much Structure in a Network Organization is Needed—or Can Be Tolerated?

In Chapter 3 the theoretical discussion of a network organization was presented. This theory in turn provided the basis for the network model presented in Chapter 4. For the purposes of this discussion, the focus is upon the concerns related to the amount of structure needed and to how much can be tolerated in a network organization. As has been discussed earlier, a fledgling network generally is faced with individuals who are somewhat skeptical of its purposes and of its administration. As a network matures, individuals get to know one another, trust is developed, and the network grows into an adaptive organization. As has been illustrated earlier, developing adaptive organizational structure in which individuals can work is an important goal for networks.

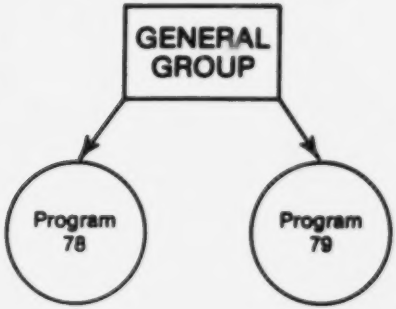
The Midwest Teacher Corps Network provided a paradox for its participants. First, federal rules and regulations which provided the operational base for the network promoted a formal network structure. It was considered to be formal to the extent that it was attached to a federal project which had to meet federal and state specifications. It was also required to have formal meetings with formal agendas. Moreover, attendance by the network participants was required although there was no penalty for non-attendance.

According to Craven and Wellman (1973) and Sarason and Lorentz (1979), the most successful resource exchange networks are those that are voluntary and informal in terms of structure. Network participants, therefore, had to deal with the problem of voluntary vs. mandatory participation. The resulting paradox was that although the Midwest Teacher Corps Network was a formal organization, it provided the means for an informal resource network to develop.

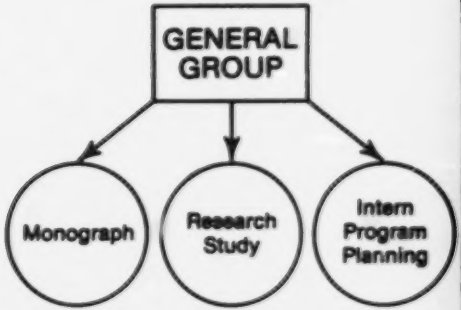
Participants worked informally within the Midwest Network structure. Formal Teacher Corps Network meetings and sessions were held during a specified meeting time. Generally these meetings were mandated by federal program monitors, but were designed in such a way as to be efficient in addressing the issues at hand. Within these meetings individual network members were able to identify agenda items, topics, and issues that they wanted to address. These formal meetings were very important in establishing a structure within the network. The meetings provided a reason for getting together, and an opportunity for members to know and trust each other. The meetings were led by an executive secretary and network chairperson both of whom encouraged and promoted consensus decision making. These formal meetings provided an opportunity for network subgrouping.

A. Formal Setting

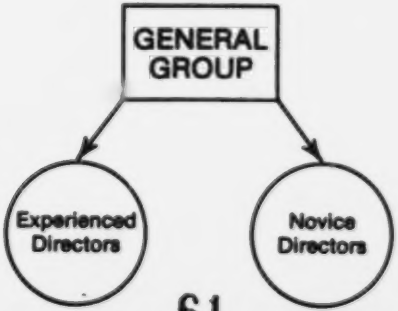
B. Informal: Project Needs



C. Informal: Topics



D. Informal: Experienced and Novice



Often the needs of the group suggested that the large formal group be subgrouped or split into smaller interest groups (See Figure 1). There were some natural divisions provided within the Teacher Corps guidelines (e.g., network participants were members of either 1978 or 1979 program projects). Because '78 and '79 projects were in different phases of their programs, it was possible during network meetings for these groups to meet separately in order to discuss pertinent issues related to their phase of implementation.

At other times the network might subgroup for more specific reasons. In the Midwest Teacher Corps Network the general group frequently split off into a number of specific high interest topic groups. For example, one group of network participants was involved in the process of developing a monograph to record the experiences encountered in electing community councils. Another group designed a research project which involved five or six members of the network, and a third group was in the process of planning and designing intern training programs. These groups were always flexible, short term groups, and there was a great deal of overlap and sharing of results among the groups. Meetings would take place before or after the formal sessions. In all cases the formal session was used as a general group meeting to keep other directors, not involved with the individual group topics, informed about the happenings and developments as well as to provide an opportunity for them to critique the activities as they were taking place.

A less productive grouping format occurred when experienced directors and novice directors met separately with their respective counterparts. This was a recurring phenomenon each year as new people would come into the project and old ones would leave. Fortunately this did not become a major problem in the network since it usually occurred only on a short-term basis. The group as a whole would quickly begin to draw these groups into their joint activities.

The most important factor of the organization of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network was the consensus decision making that prevailed within the network. Such consensus decision making provided additional credibility to informal and voluntary groupings within the network.

Lessons Learned. One of the major lessons that was learned from this experience was that informal groups can and should operate within the structure of a formal network. Formal networks provide the impetus for a trickle effect, that is, a general group that meets consistently over time from which informal groups can be formed for short-term projects or needs as they occur. This grouping and regrouping provides a critical means for network participants to become aware of the resources and consultants around them.

Another lesson that was learned in terms of network structure was that often the work at a network meeting either in the formal or informal setting was *only the beginning* of the networking concept. After the meeting, telephone conversations, material sharing, and the

sharing of resource persons were initiated to follow up ideas that were originally discussed in the network meeting. Hence, it was through this type of informal sharing that many of the benefits of networking were realized.

Concern #3: So You Are Participating in a Network — What Is Your Role, or Do You Have a Role?

A network is made up of a group of interested individuals with similar professional goals and interests. Networks such as the Teacher Corps Network are made up of groups of leaders. Leaders must be active participants in order for a network to flourish. In addition to informally exchanging resources, network members are responsible for participating in the planning, implementing, and evaluating of network activities and for translating these activities and related information into forms suitable for local project consumption.

Critical to every network is the role of the leader/coordinator of network activities. According to Sarason and Lorentz (1979), one of the major reasons that resource exchange networks abort is that the leader does not have (among other things) those personal qualities that excite the sense of mission and community in others (p. 143).

The leader of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network is classified as an executive secretary and is responsible for keeping abreast of the participants' development and needs. This person is responsible for linking needs and resources among members of the network as well as with organizations outside the structure of the network. The leader of any network also has to identify common concerns, work on scheduling, and organize technical skill and trust development sessions which the participants attend periodically. Essentially then, it can be said that the general role of the network leader/coordinator is to help members help each other. This leadership must be demonstrated in difficult as well as in good times.

Since a network is made up of leaders and interest subgroups, it is necessary for participants in the network to assume short term leadership roles under the coordination of the network leader. This leadership role is generally of a voluntary nature and is essential in promoting activities which address individual subgroup needs within the network.

In networks, as in any other organization, role conflicts in terms of expectations and functions will occur. The network must be ready to deal with role conflicts in a straightforward manner so that areas of concern can be promptly resolved. In the Midwest Teacher Corps Network a classic example of role conflict can be illustrated. The Teacher Corps rules and regulations define a rather specific role for the executive secretary; the executive secretaries were to represent networks at federal planning sessions and were expected to relate information back to local projects through networks. They were also expected to train Teacher Corps directors to meet the expectations of the federal government. In some cases, these expectations were in conflict with the expectations of the local participants. Whereas the

network participants were looking to the executive secretary to coordinate activities, Teacher Corps Washington was expecting them to direct those activities. Had the executive secretary of the network not had the skills to deal with the expectations of both groups, serious problems could have resulted. It is this type of situation that sometimes makes informal networking difficult.

Lessons Learned. Both from the experiences of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network and the general literature, some lessons can be learned in this area. First a leader/coordinator is essential. Had the Midwest Teacher Corps Network not had a designated leader in the person of executive secretary, much of the follow-through, planning, designing, and basic groundwork required for successful meetings would not have taken place. In a network which has less financing, it is absolutely essential that a network leader be designated, either paid or unpaid, to assume the leadership responsibilities on a continuous basis. Another lesson to be learned is that what a network participant gets from the network is proportional to what she/he gives to the network. Within networks one should expect differentiated involvement. For example, for some activities an individual may serve as an active participant, leader, or initiator. In another activity the participant may serve as a constructive critic. It does take time, but members of networks must expect and be able to assume differentiated roles.

A general lesson to be learned is that it takes time for an organization to grow from a structured network organization into an open, adaptive one. Activities must be undertaken to purposefully build trust among participants. Periodically, circumstances will require that a formal structure be utilized. In time, however, members of that group may request or desire a more adaptive setting. This problem should be expected and can be dealt with productively as trust develops over time.

Concern #4: Can Networks Exist Without Money?

A critical question that all individuals dealing with networks must ask is whether they can survive without money. The answer is likely to be a qualified yes. The acquisition of services with minimal financial resources is basic to the rationale for local resources exchange networks. Often this takes place in the form of personal exchanges of services. However, in networks that encompass a wide geographic area like the Midwest Teacher Corps Network, money does become a larger consideration. Money is essential for convening members of this type of network regularly enough to develop trust relationships. This concern is important to individuals attempting to develop a new network. Since the Midwest Teacher Corps Network was fairly well established and trust relationships had developed, it was anticipated that it would continue to survive without the amount of financing it enjoyed in the past, albeit in a modified fashion. The goal of member

contributions is to maintain mutual support in terms of personnel and resources, though at a greatly reduced level.

Since the Midwest Teacher Corps Network covered a broad geographical area, funding was used primarily for travel and meeting expenses. Funding of network support personnel (ie., executive secretary, office secretary, and documentor) was another example of the benefits external funding can provide to the networking concept. Consultants, network publications, and office expenses were also areas that were financed by external funding.

Lessons Learned. The most essential lesson learned from the Midwest Teacher Corp Network experience in terms of financing was that funding affects the scope of project activities. External funding made it possible to carry on complex programs involving individuals from broad geographic areas. It also made it possible to have a paid network staff to serve as facilitators for network activites. We began this section by making a qualified statement that networks could function with limited funding. The qualification meant that the scope of the network would have to be very limited. The greatest limitations, based on our Teacher Corps experiences, would be the inability to have a paid network staff and the inability to bring people together from a wide geographic area.

Perhaps these concerns of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network can best be summarized by sharing a final lesson. None of us can do it all as well as it might be done, but we can do all that we are charged to do better if we collaborate in the sharing of our strengths to improve upon our weaknesses.

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CHAPTER 6

IMPLEMENTATION AND MAINTENANCE OF NETWORKS

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The purpose of this chapter is to describe factors related to the implementation and successful maintenance of networks. As defined in this monograph, a network is an interconnected or interrelated group of individuals or institutional representatives who have formed to encourage communication among individuals who generally have no other way to communicate directly, and to provide services that individual institutions cannot sustain on their own. Networks may be formed for economic, political, social, cultural, religious, educational or other reasons. Generally networks are of two types: those that are formed voluntarily and supported entirely by the members, and those that are sponsored by an agency which is not intended to be an equal participant in the network. The discussion of topics in this chapter is based on the experience of the directors of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network, a network sponsored by the National Teacher Corps office which provided funding for a full-time Network Executive Secretary, his staff, and limited network related activities.

There can be no hard and fast rules for implementing networks due to numerous environmental and situational variables which exist in and among network members. Almost every need, every environment, every potential network constituency is different. This is particularly true among social welfare and educational groups who generally form networks to foster cooperation among colleagues or institutional representatives who have either mutual goals and/or similiar problems that are amenable to group situations. This chapter will outline the more global factors which tend to influence network implementation and maintenance. These factors include: network membership and purposes, the internal dynamics, the maintenance of network viability, the relationship of networks to local institutions, the publicizing of the network, the delivering of services via networks, feedback and follow-through, and the possibilities for overlapping networks. This list is by no means exhaustive, but if thoughtful attention is paid to each of these factors successful implementation and maintenance of a network is likely to be achieved.

Network Membership

When initiating a network, one of the first areas to be considered is the membership. Decisions need to be made regarding who will share network membership and who will benefit from network activities.

Membership in networks should be based on at least two fundamental assumptions:

1) that a group of people meeting together on a regular basis will provide benefits either for the people themselves, the institutions they represent, or the programs with which they are associated. (Ideally, all three areas will receive some benefits.)
2) that the advantages derived from such network meetings will more than offset any disadvantages, for example, time away from other work, travel, costs, additional responsibilities and the like.

Network memberships are of two types: voluntary or mandatory. The former implies that all parties who participate see advantages in so doing. Examples of voluntary networks are special interest groups within chartered organizations, informal get togethers of departmental chairpersons within a geographic region, and professionals within different organizations that recognize common problems that are better handled through collaboration rather than competition.

Mandatory network membership is ordinarily based on the members' involvement in another program which also mandates membership in a network. Examples of this type of network include directors of federal projects in a geographic region or members of a profession who are required to meet because of state or professional administrative codes or laws', for example, appointed officials in a political subdivision.

Sometimes it is not clear whether network membership is mandated, voluntary, strongly recommended to avoid loss of political power, or strongly recommended to increase political power. Although networks may be classed as voluntary or mandatory, one's decision to belong may be based on reasons different from the stated purposes of the network. The network may have been established to increase communication, but one may attend network meetings to protect one's political or economic interests. One may simply want to guarantee that no decisions are made which may adversely affect the person or the institution.

Determing one's membership status (mandatory vs. voluntary) is a crucial step since it affects other decisions which must be made regarding the implementation of a network. This decision should be thought through carefully even if one has the legislative or economic power to mandate participation.

Network Purposes

Setting the purposes for networking and establishing working objectives is a second major area needing initial attention. Frequently this may be easy, for the very idea of establishing a network may have come from collectively identified purposes. An example of this would be for a group of employers to join together to resolve commuting concerns of employees during the energy shortage or bilingual program directors lobbying for support for materials resource centers. Problems may arise when the purpose for the network has been established by someone outside the network group. When networks are sponsored by

agencies not directly participating in the network, the network participants are likely to be unclear regarding their roles and responsibilities and even more unclear about the usefulness of networking in general.

It is possible that once a network has been established, particularly on a mandated basis, the sponsoring agencies will see it as a convenient vehicle for airing their problems or as a support group for meeting their own needs. The more these new and outside needs influence the network, the more likely the network members will have trouble fulfilling their original purposes. Thus, there are trade-offs that have to be made when considering the objectives of networks sponsored by non-participating agencies. Network members need to contrast those purposes established by someone outside the network with those they have identified in order to determine whether the benefits of networking are large enough to warrant their continued participation. If not dealt with openly, these potential conflicts in purpose can create enough dissonance among network members to destroy effective communication. Agreements concerning such issues and how they will be treated should be reached early among network members so that the network has an opportunity to survive the immediate crises which arise when an outside sponsor attempts to disrupt the focus of a network's purposes and activities.

When networks are flexible, adaptive, and under the control of their members, they are much more likely to function effectively. Networks are not institutions; they are temporary systems within institutions. They should function as long as their specific objectives are acceptable to the group and the participants find them useful. To belabor the point, all organizations need to be dynamic to survive, but, some are meant to be more stable, more encompassing than others. Networks may function well for a long period of time but they are still viewed as a temporary system. When they have fulfilled their role, they should be abandoned. If and when needed, new networks can and should be created with overlapping members which will allow the best from older networks to survive under new guises. Under no circumstances should a network be formed without clearly stated goals. These goals will later assist in the evaluation and dissolution of a network once the final goals have been met.

Network Dynamics

Because networks are temporary, they are also fragile and vulnerable. The pattern of change or growth in a network is subject to many variables, some of which are not controllable but should be noted for the effect they have on network operations. Stability of membership and the status of members affect the dynamics. Those people who have participated in a network for several years have needs different from those who are participating for the first time. In a stable organization such as a school, a university or a military organization where one has day to day contact and where permanency is expected, periods of integration can be more consistently handled. In a network, group

cohesiveness needs to be established quickly and the different agendas of members integrated into the working objectives of the group as a whole. Precedents set by more stable organizations do not always provide the most effective means of serving network members. Membership is fluid in networks and from time to time it will become necessary to repeat training and information sharing workshops for the new members. Care should be taken so as not to constantly direct network activities toward new membership and thus lose site of long range goals. In spite of the need for developing group cohesiveness, a variety of services for network members needs to be planned. In a relatively short time, network members will undoubtedly find themselves moving toward goals and objectives where the common membership needs can be addressed. More than likely, the need to react to legislative or political changes that affect all members or the need to respond to new purposes mandated by network sponsors will force participants to set objectives that benefit all members.

Private agendas do not necessarily interfere with public agendas, but they can. Many times, without network members realizing it, private and personal agendas have over-taken the direction of a group. This may lead to friction and distrust. Since trust among members is crucial to operating a successful network, attempts must be made to insure that members have every opportunity to make their own objectives known. Further, members should be given the necessary support to carry out these objectives as long as they are generally consistent with the overreaching purposes of the network.

Network Vitality

Every organization has a tendency to slow down, to become stale and to become inert. There often comes a time when members simply do not participate because the organization no longer has personally identifiable benefits. Sometimes the organization continues to exist even though it is no longer viable. Networks sponsored by an agency other than the members' institutions are more prone to this form of stagnation than are networks which are financially supported by the membership.

There are several ways that such entropy can be successfully counteracted: (a) frequent assessing of direction and accomplishments; (b) changing the kind of specificity of network objectives; (c) changing the nature of membership, by adding or subtracting members; (d) changing the degree or depth of involvement by the members; and (e) subgrouping members to work on special projects.

Network evaluation activities can play a key role in counteracting entropy. Too often, evaluations of networks are limited to discrete activities coordinated by the membership without any attempt to examine how these activities fit into the major goals of the network. Although these discrete activities may prove successful on their own merits, they do not necessarily lead to sustaining the overall development of the network unless they can be related to the network's major objectives. It is the responsibility of network leaders to guide and

direct the group's efforts so that the network's major purposes may be accomplished. Both short-range and long-range benefits of networking should be emphasized in evaluation. A major strength of networking lies in the process itself. This process should not be overlooked during an evaluation. Frequent analysis of benefits from networking as well as the accomplishments of the network itself should be conducted. Network participants should relay this information to their home institutions and network leaders should do the same for the sponsoring or funding agency. Home institutions should be encouraged to view the network as a resource available to them. Evaluation activities which can relate potential benefits for both the network and the individual institutions represented will help sustain the enthusiasm of network participants.

It is easy for the initial excitement of exploring new territory to replace the necessity of finding ways to maintain and support operations already begun. Frequently awareness and discovery conferences are not followed up. When this happens, the generally successful feelings of members relating to new ideas turn to feelings of dissatisfaction because long term benefits are not easily identifiable. Again, network leaders can and should play the critical role of relating these discovery conferences to the major purposes of the network. Leaders must take the responsibility of building initial enthusiasm by ensuring that follow-up activities take place either at the network level or by a subdivision of the membership who wish to pursue these new ideas further. It is not necessary that every network activity benefit every member every time, but it is necessary that all members continue to feel confident that their individual concerns and interests will be addressed in a majority of activities undertaken by the network.

Awareness and discovery conferences may also be used to refocus overall network directions or specific objectives. If the network has been operating for some time, the opportunity to explore a new path will be welcomed by its membership. Again it is up to the network leaders to carefully balance the personnel and monetary resources needed to sustain and bring to conclusion activities already underway with resources needed to carry out new projects.

Relationships of Local Institutions and Networks

Network members are usually representatives of institutions and their activities are generally sanctioned by these institutions. Network members are also responsible to the institutions which they represent. This is a critical point and must act as a constant reminder to network leaders. For good or ill, a network member's first allegiance is, and must be, to his or her home institution. These institutions may be large or small, public or private, old or new, serving urban or rural populations. Each institution will have different rules which govern its members. Each institution, even though it has "bought into" the idea of network participation, will have somewhat different expectations of what this participation will mean both for its individual representative

and for the institution itself. Network leaders must be aware of these differences and guide network participants into defining network purposes and objectives that will support the institutional goals of the network membership. Broad network objectives should also be compatible with the bureaucratic rules governing the individual institutions. If this cannot be done for every case, then the leadership must find ways to work within these rules. Rules regarding when one may be away from the local institution, for example, or rules governing levels and methods of reimbursement for travel, or rules about payment for services rendered vary greatly from institution to institution and may hinder network functioning and effectiveness unless they are dealt with adequately. It is up to network leaders to ease the burdens of these constraints on the membership as much as is feasible.

With all of this, local institutional authority can be both programatically and financially supportive if network leaders and the members themselves keep the constituent institutions well informed about and involved in, network activities. This involvement may include keeping non-members informed of network plans and activities, holding network activities at local institutions, using local institutional specialists as speakers, trainers or consultants, and the sharing of network processes and products with all potential users in local organizations.

Publicizing the Network

Multiple communication devices are critical in effective networking. Most organizations have a variety of ways to communicate with their members such as newsletters, journals, monographs, tapes, conference telephone calls, and the like. Networks should use all of these communication devices. Not only will these methods keep members informed but they can also be used to demonstrate to the membership and their local constituencies that they are receiving something tangible for their time and effort. In addition, consistent and frequent communication is necessary so that all members, regardless of their level of active involvement, will have sufficient information to form judgements about network directions. As noted in the previous section, it is very important to consistently inform institutional authorities and local colleagues about network benefits and accomplishments.

If network members have as one of their charges, to document, demonstrate and disseminate, as was the case in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network, then special attention needs to be given to (a) the selection of appropriate communication media for a variety of audiences, (b) the determination of appropriate content for various audiences, and (c) the distribution of network products to the appropriate audiences. Multiple varieties of communication media are necessary for the maintenance of the network itself. Where documentation, demonstration, and particularly dissemination are goals, such media are vital to a declaration of success.

Both network leaders and members need to be involved in determining the audiences with whom network processes and products are to be shared. This guarantees that not only will the external national audiences or sponsoring agencies remain informed, but in addition, that the regional, state and local audiences most important to the network members will be kept apprised of what the network is accomplishing.

Network leaders and members should be encouraged to work with other organizations whose purposes coincide with, or complement those of, the network. Although networks should attempt to publish their own articles, monographs or journals, they should also try to publish in the refereed journals of other professional organizations with similar purposes and interests. This not only lends credibility to the network itself but greatly increases the audiences with whom members of the network can share ideas, professional concerns, research findings, or successful practices and programs. This kind of collaboration is essential if networks have an obligation to communicate their activities to as wide an audience as possible.

Delivering Services

Networks are generally established to facilitate communications, but they may also provide services that individual members would find difficult to obtain without the assistance of the network. To conserve both human and fiscal resources, the network can provide training for both its own members and their colleagues. They, in turn, are expected to make use of this training either to improve their own job performance or to provide similar training sessions to other colleagues at their local institutions.

Networks can produce materials that are needed or desired by the network members but which, more than likely, would not be produced if each member (or institution) had to do so on its own. It may be assumed that the network product will be of greater use to more people, because of the collective input of all network members. (Occasionally material produced by the networks can be of a kind that would not otherwise be produced because of the limited audience for whom it is intended.) Networks can be flexible and take more risks when there is agreement that network members should experiment and test practices, processes or products which have not yet been validated by research but appear to have reasonable promise of success. In addition, network members are cognizant of what is needed by their home institutions and are, therefore, in an excellent position to evaluate what network practices or products have potential benefits for them and their colleagues at the local level.

Feedback and Follow-Through

As noted earlier, network members represent an institution or program that occupies most of their professional lives. Hence network leaders need to be especially careful to provide timely, efficient

feedback on network activities. Network leaders may want to build thorough records for the documentation files, but they should provide summarized data, conclusions and recommendations for network members to assist them in decision-making.

Since network members do not always have vested interests in every network activity, the network should arrange to hire, or appoint someone to be responsible for following through on members' directives and the recommendations that come from network evaluations or other activities. Without this kind of attention, there will be little follow-through from one activity to the next. And, without follow-through the entropy mentioned earlier will set in. The more unconnected the activities, the more likely they are to be viewed as meaningless and without benefit. Although there is virtue in redundancy and review, network members will soon decide that network objectives and the activities to support them are all right for someone else, but not for them. This may lead to a lack of interest in network participation or the very common observation "The session was o.k., but I didn't learn a thing!"

Overlapping Networks

Members of one network often hold membership in other networks. There are advantages and disadvantages of belonging to more than one network particularly when these networks are sponsored by a single agency and overlap either in program, clients served, purpose, or geography. Often the sponsoring agency does not understand the strain this dual membership places on members, nor the negative effect these factors have on a members' contributions to both network activities.

Overlapping networks, however, can broaden communication. They can have positive benefits for the networks, the members' local institutions and the participants themselves. This is particularly true where communication between networks of different sponsoring agencies is concerned. Overlapping membership can promote a better understanding of shared goals and solutions as well as assist these networks in discovering and avoiding potential problem areas that may render the networks ineffective. Cross memberships may promote collaboration and provide broader perspectives on the problems which the networks are endeavoring to solve.

Overlapping networks that involve members from networks which are geographically, client, programmatically or politically based are able to promote lateral as well as hierarchial sharing of information. Network leaders should take the responsibility of informing themselves and the network membership of other organizations or networks which are working in the same or related areas, and of exploring the possibilities for collaborative activities with these groups. Particularly in public education, where financial resources appear to be diminishing at a rapid rate, increased collaboration is no longer a luxury to be enjoyed, but a necessity to be pursued. University-based networks should attempt to build collaborative relationships with public

schools, state departments of public instruction, and, where applicable and feasible, teacher centers and teachers' unions. These latter groups have in recent years built strong local and national networks; they too, are facing the problem of increasingly scarce resources. Each group has a power base and a perspective to offer from which the others could benefit. In addition, the information flow encouraged by overlapping networks would enable the membership to make better informed decisions, to avoid needless redundancy, and to better understand how their own unique contributions promote solutions to problems which all of them are interested in resolving.

Conclusion

Effective networking is not an easy task. It requires careful attention to many human and political factors in the implementation phase and continued sensitivity to these factors in the maintenance phase. Networks can be built around one or more mutual interests. In order to successfully maintain a network, however, four key objectives must be achieved quickly and sustained: a) open and effective communication among the membership must be developed; b) mutual trust must be established; c) strong and effective leadership must be formed; and d) the benefits derived from the meeting and activities of the network must, as consistently as possible, offset any inconveniences or disadvantages individual members experience as a result of participating in the network. If these four conditions are met, then it is highly likely that the creative collaborative potentials inherent in the concept of networking will be realized by those participating in the network.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

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The purpose of this monograph was to: (a) report the self analysis of networking by the network participants; (b) set forth a developmental network model; (c) raise the key issues in the networking process; and (d) contribute to the knowledge regarding networking.

A network has been defined in this monograph as an interconnected or interrelated group of individuals or institutional representatives who have formed to encourage communication among individuals who generally have no other way to communicate directly, and to provide services that institutions cannot sustain on their own. Networks may have a variety of specific goals or purposes such as: serving as a mutual support system, providing a demonstration forum, facilitating linkage with other agencies, disseminating information, training individuals, and conducting research.

Members of the Midwest Teacher Corps Network participated in a study dealing with their perceptions and reactions to the networking experience. The study viewed the network as a culture and the analysis of the data revealed various characteristics of the culture as perceived by its members. The Midwest Teacher Corps Network has been described as a support system which included sharing, mutual assistance and the coordination of activities. Key features of the network were communication, professional growth, a temporary linkage system, collaborative governance, and parity.

The results of this study and a synthesis of organizational theory formed the bases for the developmental network model. This model assumes that networks are growing and maturing temporary social systems. As social systems, networks include two domains: organizational and personal. Both the personal and organizational domains can be delimited in terms of two bipolar traits appearing at either end of a continuum. The organizational continuum ranges from bureaucratic to adaptive and the personal continuum ranges from closed to open. The network's developmental process involves the continuous interaction between the individual network participant and the organizational structure. The types of interaction which contribute to the most productive network functioning both in terms of the achievement of organizational goals and the satisfaction of individual needs occurs when an open individual interacts in an adaptive organizational structure.

When networks are planned, the organizers should consider membership, purpose, dynamics, vitality, relationship to other institutions, communication, delivery of services, feedback and follow-through. Four categories of concerns need to be constantly addressed

by network participants. These include: (a) network purposes and time commitments, (b) network structure, (c) the role of the individual participant and (d) finances.

The material presented in the six chapters of this monograph can be used to generate conclusions regarding networking. These conclusions, resulting from both theory and practice, may be viewed as "lessons learned" or "recommendations to" those involved in implementing and maintaining networks.

1. The ideal network is characterized by an adaptive structure in which individuals participate openly.

   Organizational literature describes several types of structures which may be viewed on a continuum from bureaucratic to adaptive. An ideal network is an adaptive one featuring shared responsibility, commonality of goals, total participation by its membership, consensus decision making, and collegiality. Individuals who participate in the network may also be characterized on a continuum from closed to open. Networks are most effective when individuals are "open", that is, willing to share ideas, tolerant of differing beliefs and opinions, and having a high level of trust.

2. Participation in networks should be voluntary.

   Because networks are oriented to members' mutual benefits, voluntary membership is preferable to mandated participation. In those cases where participation has been mandated, such as in the Midwest Teacher Corps Network, opportunities for voluntary subgrouping should be provided. In this way, individuals have the opportunity to select specific tasks and activities which reflect personal interests and needs. In addition, if participation is mandated, efforts should be made to insure that the institutional representative believes in the value and importance of networking and willingly agrees to represent the institution.

3. While it is important to designate one individual as the long term leader, leadership acts such as the chairing of subgroup committees should be emergent based on interest and expertise.

   It is important that one individual assume the key administrative role to coordinate and facilitate network activity and to supervise budgetary matters. However, this leader should maintain a parity relationship with network members. In addition, network leadership should be situational so various network members may assume leadership roles dependent on the specific task. Different leaders may emerge as the skills, interest, and expertise required for various tasks change.

4. Successful networks involve open two way communication among all participants and their designated leader.

   Effective communication within a network is essential for its success. The communication within the network will involve both formal and informal modes of conveying information and sharing ideas. Feedback from messages sent is also an important variable

in the communication process. Thus, communication must freely flow from the leader to the member and back to the leader, and between all the individual network participants.

5. Network members should feel ownership for governance within the network.

   It is essential that networks emphasize parity among peers. Decision making within the network should reflect a consensus approach in which all members support decisions that are made. Decision making and governance should be viewed as a collaborative process. With this shared responsibility for decision-making, network members will feel ownership for the network as a social system.

6. The network should emphasize the mutual exchange of resources.

   Because networks are formed in order to provide services that institutions may be unable to sustain on their own, it is important for networks to capitalize on shared resources, both financial and human. Individuals can serve as vital resources in such areas as training, dissemination, and research. Through the mutual exchange of resources, networks can conserve limited resources and foster sharing and cooperation among members. An example of this mutual exchange can occur when individuals participating in larger geographic networks develop similar local resource exchange networks.

7. Networks should emphasize trust relationships among individual members.

   Trust relationships are vital to network success. Sharing of ideas and cooperative planning and implementing cannot occur in a suspicious atmosphere in which members feel threatened or insecure. Although network members may initially be skeptical and guarded, efforts should be made to create a network climate conducive to mutual understanding, respect, and the development of trust.

8. A network is a dynamic system with its growth viewed as a developmental process.

   A network is a fluid and flexible structure in which change is both desirable and predictable. When networks are static, they stagnate and fail to achieve organizational goals or satisfy the personal needs of their members. Over time effective networks move toward a more adaptive mode of operation. Factors which provide impetus for change include shared experience, increased understanding, resolution of conflict, and development of ownership.

9. While financing does not necessarily determine the existence of the network, the funding source and level of financial support may influence what can be done and the manner in which it is done.

   Networks can exist without money or with limited financial resources. In those cases, commitment to the value of the network must be very strong among the participants. Efforts to maximize human and financial resources must be made. When the network is

funded by an outside source, network members must realize that certain constraints may be placed on network operations. It is important to acknowledge these constraints and to find constructive ways to deal with them.

10. Networks are successful when the "gives and gets principle" is operating.

    Individual participants must value the network and endorse its goals and purposes. Members usually possess their own personal agendas regarding what benefits they hope to derive from membership. When organizational goals and personal needs coincide, individuals are willing to give to the network. It is at this point they believe the benefits to them will be commensurate with their commitment of time and effort.

In conclusion, networks should be open and adaptive systems responding to members' needs for parity, shared decision making, and open communication. They are support systems in which participants can share ideas, provide mutual assistance and facilitate the coordination of services and activities. Networks capitalize on the mutual exchange of resources. As dynamic and fluid systems, networks continually strive to achieve organizational goals and to satisfy individual needs in an atmosphere of trust, from which all members can benefit.

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